

TOWARD A HANDBOOK FOR NAVAL MANAGERS

Dana Page French

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

Monterey, California



THESIS

TOWARD A HANDBOOK
FOR NAVAL MANAGERS

by

Dana Page French Jr.

June 1975

Thesis Advisor:

William J. Haga

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

T168331



REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

READ INSTRUCTIONS
BEFORE COMPLETING FORM

1. REPORT NUMBER		2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) Toward A Handbook For Naval Managers		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Master's Thesis June 1975	
7. AUTHOR(s) Dana Page French, Jr.		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER	
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)	
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS	
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office) Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		12. REPORT DATE June 1975	
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES	
		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) Unclassified	
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE	
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.			
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)			
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)			
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) This thesis provides initial groundwork in condensing and extracting from the literature of management and the broad social sciences those concepts that are deemed pertinent to Navy managers in the fleet in helping to solve their management problems. In the form of a reference handbook, it cross-references for specific problems those concepts which can pose new ideas useful in managing people in the Navy. Each concept shows where additional			



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Toward A Handbook
For Naval Managers

by

Dana Page French Jr.
Lieutenant Commander, United States Navy
B.S., U.S. Naval Academy, 1961

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
June 1975

ABSTRACT

This thesis provides initial groundwork in condensing and extracting from the literature of management and the broad social sciences those concepts that are deemed pertinent to Navy managers in the fleet in helping to solve their management problems. In the form of a reference handbook, it cross-references for specific problems those concepts which can pose new ideas useful in managing people in the Navy. Each concept shows where additional information about it can be found through reference to a reading list. An extensive glossary is provided, precluding the need for a dictionary. The concepts are drawn from history, psychology, social psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, economics, management, organization development, biology, philosophy, and the military. The problems are categorized as enlisted problems, officer problems, individual problems, unit problems, Navy problems, American problems, and human problems. Two additional chapters explain each social science and the difference between them and how to use the book.

THEORY

The theory of the present work is based on the following assumptions:

1. The system is in a steady state.
2. The system is in a steady state.
3. The system is in a steady state.
4. The system is in a steady state.
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INTRODUCTION



INTRODUCTION

Continually caught between an old Navy and a new Navy, we represent nothing unique. Every Navy man has recognized this feeling within himself at some point. Yet, it is unique for each of us alone, and it causes us problems in living. We sail through our lives choosing a present course from the wake of the past and our hoped-for destination in the future. The course we take is one of an infinite number available to us. Any mariner worth his salt knows that he must account for wind, sea, and current, guided by the stars, if he would navigate along a desired track. The difficulty of his task lies in winds that change direction and force, seas that constantly move, sometimes flat, sometimes stormy, and in subtly shifting, even new, currents. The stars are all that are predictable and true. We cannot always see them, and we are constantly discovering new ones, but there are enough stars visible and charted to guide the navigator through all of the changing forces around him. The secret is to know and to use the stars. This book contains some conceptual stars for those Navy men and women, both officers and petty officers, who must manage sailors and the ships and aircraft they operate. It does not contain all of the known stars. Some stars will seem truer to some managers than to others. But, to try to manage without knowing any of these conceptual stars will



just as surely put us at the mercy of the elements as to try to navigate without celestial stars.

We have three courses open to us. The first is to turn and to head back along our wake, to choose the old Navy. It is a very tempting option because it is known and familiar, and has real names and faces. It has famous heroes and battles to inspire us. It has precedent and experience. Every man knows where he stands. There are no surprises. The familiar is desirable because we have invested much of our lives in learning it. We deserve to exist as a master in the Navy we joined, because it tested us and we passed. Many have come around already toward the old Navy.

The second choice is to stand fast and do nothing, to drift. This, too, is a tempting choice, particularly in a storm where the elements seem to overwhelm us. To fight to maintain any course under such circumstances would be wearing and, perhaps, futile. Drifting may not get us exactly where we want to go, but at least we are still afloat with the engines in standby. Many have chosen to drift in standby, hoping the weather will improve before the boiler fires go out.

The third choice is the least attractive of the three because it involves risk and uncertainty. It is the choice of the manager who knows where he has been, where he is now, and where he wants to go. It is the choice of the best possible course for the Navy, arrived at from knowledge, and supported



by the confidence that only knowledge can give. It means traversing waters that may be unknown, and it may even bring about the loss of the ship. Few of us have come forward with recommended courses toward the new Navy.

This handbook was written for all naval managers who have not made an irrevocable choice. It is written to help you understand why your Navy does what it does and why people behave as they do. It seeks to keep you asking "why?" so that you will seek more knowledge to be in charge of your Navy and of yourself.

This handbook makes certain assumptions. First, it assumes that there is a state-of-the-art to management, and that the Navy should know what it is. Second, it assumes that most naval managers have never had formal training in basic management principles and processes. Rather, that you have learned to manage from experience on the job, from length of service and rank. Third, it assumes that most naval managers have had little formal training in leadership or in the behavioral sciences. Rather, that you began to lead upon being commissioned. Lastly, it assumes that many naval managers know intuitively that there must be a better way to manage, and that, if given new knowledge, you will recognize its applicability.

The new knowledge which a conscientious naval manager needs is available in the literature of thousands of books, professional journals, studies, and articles. It can be



gained in graduate level education. It cannot be gained in a short time, or from the ship's library. The operating naval manager laboring on, under, and over the sea, who needs this knowledge the most, is the person least able to get it.

The goal of this handbook is to bring to the manager in the operating forces some knowledge of people and their behavior, as individuals and in groups, that has been found by the social sciences. The book is structured for you, with special consideration for your on-the-job time constraints. It need not be read cover-to-cover to be useful. It is a reference book. Rather than giving answers or solving problems, it provides, for typical problems, pertinent concepts drawn from the broad range of the social sciences. They are designed to provide different perspectives, ideas, facts, and insights regarding a problem to assist you in finding effective solutions.



CHAPTER ONE

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES



CHAPTER ONE

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The term social sciences includes the following academic disciplines: military, history, psychology, social psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, economics, management, organization development, biology, and philosophy. They all have the same focus, man and society. They differ only in the ways that they relate the events in which they observe men.

THE MILITARY

A separate category on the military is included in the book even though it is not strictly a social science. Many of these concepts are drawn from sociological studies of the military. Nevertheless, there is a body of knowledge and traditions that belong uniquely to the practice and profession of arms. These fundamental concepts guide a great deal of the management and behavior of the Navy, and therefore, draw our interest. A review of these fundamentals is timely when younger Navy men and women are asking their seniors why we do things as we do. All too often the seniors do not know why. Either we have forgotten or we never did know. Young Navy people complain that they get rules without reasons. Juniors imply that their seniors learned the rules and traditions so well that they lack the capacity to be in conflict with them. Their very thoughts are but a reflection of the

absorbed rules. To best respond to this challenge is to demonstrate the Navy's capability to examine its rules and traditions, discarding those that are no longer viable, while explaining those that retain utility. Military fundamentals must be known if this is to be done.

PSYCHOLOGY

Among the behavioral sciences, psychology is the one that focuses upon individual behavior and mental processes. While each school of thought in psychology focuses upon the individual within a psychological perspective, they differ in how they choose to think of man. These schools are:

1. Behaviorists - They study only the objectively describable behavior of men while ignoring their attitudes. They look for the environmental causes of behavior, called the stimulus, and the resulting observed behavior, called the response. They discard as unreliable and unprovable what may go on inside a person's mind.

2. Phenomenologists - They study the reasons men behave the way they do through perceptions held by people. They believe that knowing how a person perceives and organizes his environment allows them to see its impact on his ultimate behavior.

3. Humanists - They dwell on the uniquely human, creative, and satisfying aspects of life. They study behavior that brings about realization of the best potential with each person.



4. Physiologists - They believe that men are driven by biological forces not really under mental control.

5. Cognitive-Developmentists - They see personal development as stages of activity between the environment and the person. Neither predominates but rather a person develops and structures his own personality based on the manner in which he internalizes his unique experiences.

No universal theory of human behavior has yet evolved in psychology. While such a theory would help a working manager, its absence does not mean that existing psychological concepts are of no practical value. Many concepts are useful now in seeking a better understanding of managing people.¹

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Social psychology lies somewhere between psychology and sociology. While it is concerned with the individual mental processes and behavior of psychology, it studies the influence of other people on the individual. Social psychologists are interested in groups, organizations and institutions, but only from the point of view of how they influence the behavior and thinking of the individual person within them.²

SOCIOLOGY

Unlike psychology, sociology deliberately avoids individual personality differences. Rather, it looks at people as they are linked through families, races, organizations, institutions and societies. Each sociologist concentrates his

study on a particular social element, such as kinship, crime, religion, race relations, bureaucracy, or the military. They view human behavior in terms of structural patterns and systems of living. As with psychologists, there is no central theory that ties sociologists together. There are several useful concepts that have been generated by this sociological viewpoint. The interests of sociologists overlap and intermingle. Much of the writing in social psychology has been done by sociologists.³

HISTORY

History is usually more familiar to naval managers than the other social sciences. In many cases, it may even be the only one you have studied formally. In a sense, history is not a true social science because "everything is grist to the historian's mill."⁴ As such, it potentially includes the other social sciences within its concerns. It is not truly "scientific" in the sense of being mathematically rigorous. Yet, it does provide us with knowledge and insight about human behavior. Historians have specialized in studying man's past either by time period, geographical area, or special approach to selected bodies of facts.⁵ We study history to help explain the present and to predict the future. Naval managers have need for its assistance.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

The basic premise of political science is that man can change his environment as far as the limits of his abilities extend. Within these bounds, nothing is predetermined because man can change anything he has made. Political scientists are committed to the study of such processes as power, authority, and government. As an applied pragmatic field of knowledge, political science can be a ready source of help to naval managers.⁶

ANTHROPOLOGY

Where historians study everything in a given time frame, anthropologists are interested in every event in a given geographical area. Anthropology deals with the study of small societies such as tribes. It is comprised of several branches:

1. Physical anthropology - a part of human biology, it studies the distribution of physical traits in societies, for genetic purposes.
2. Paleoanthropology - a form of physical anthropology and archeology. It studies the evolution of man, including the development of culture through material artifacts.
3. Psychological anthropology - bases its study on identifying characteristics of individual personality in society.
4. Social and cultural anthropology - a diverse group of studies of living societies with an emphasis on their customs and culture. Usually, such an anthropologist lives in a subject society for a year to observe local customs and their

interrelations. Most often the societies studied are remote and primitive. While the relevance of such studies to the naval manager seems vague, they provide a means to make use of the separate ideas from other social sciences. Our own lives are as driven and constrained by custom as those of primitive tribes. The difference is that we possess the mental capacity to be aware of what is happening to us. Such awareness is critical to eradicating ignorance, to gaining control of ourselves, and to the management of people.⁷

ECONOMICS

Economics is the study of the allocation of scarce resources. It is concerned with the large systems that relate supply and demand for goods in a marketplace. Money is the basic currency around which the system operates. Economists have developed complex theories to explain and predict the forces of an economic system and their cyclic fluctuations. The study of economics is usually broken into two parts: macroeconomics and microeconomics. Macro deals with the basic factors of a total national economy, such as consumption, capital investment, and government spending. Micro is concerned with productive decision-making and use of resources in a single organization. A knowledge of basic economic principles is needed for managing men, money, and material for the government.⁸



MANAGEMENT

Management is another discipline that is essentially a practical application of other academic studies. Managers plan, organize, direct, staff, and control. Management should be the most widely understood social science. Surprisingly, there has been relatively little attention paid to conducting research in this field. Leaders in the management consulting field have stressed the growing complexity, pressures, and high economic stakes in management. Their belief is that the management practices that we have been using are not as effective as they should be. This is as true in the Navy as in any large, complex organization. We need a candid examination of existing Navy management practices. To do this requires a knowledge of the basic principles of management.

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development, or organization renewal, applies behavioral science concepts to the improvement of organizations. Based upon planned, guided change, OD consultants are employed to examine an organization's culture, "keeping the good things, modifying some, and eliminating others."⁹ OD is frequently misunderstood as a hatchet plan to make change for its own sake. Management consultants traditionally examine an organization much as a physician would examine a patient, announcing a diagnosis and recommending a remedy. OD agents do not give pat answers, however. Rather, they seek to guide

managers in self-examination and self-improvement. Due to the nature of their method of openness and honesty, up to five years of effort may be required for OD to bring improvements in a large organization. Its applicability to naval management is evident.

BIOLOGY

Biology is the study of the vital physical processes of living organisms. It is a physical science and is linked with psychology to learn about total man. It should be recognized that man is a single entity. We divide him into various artificial disciplines that have meaning only in our scheme of study. For this reason as much as any other, the social sciences overlap one another. Many concepts, research techniques, and terms have been borrowed from the physical sciences and applied to social situations in an analogous way. Examples of this cross pollinization are the "pressures" of life, the "force" of argument, and the "acceleration" of events.

PHILOSOPHY

According to Durant, "Science without philosophy, facts without perspective and valuation, cannot save us from havoc and despair. Science gives us knowledge, but only philosophy can give us wisdom." There are five fields of study in philosophy:

1. Logic - the mental process by which external reality is comprehended through our senses.

2. Ethics - ideal conduct and morality.

3. Politics - proper social organization for the realization of human potential.

4. Esthetics - ideal form, or beauty.

5. Metaphysics - the "ultimate reality" of all things.

It is misleading, however, to dissect philosophy into specific parts. Its essence is its totality in contemplating the meaning of human existence.¹⁰

A case is made here for the naval manager to consider that the social sciences deserve a closer look. You should recognize that some of their knowledge is usable in dealing with your everyday problems. This handbook was designed to take minimum time from the naval manager's busy day in order to make it useful and used.

CHAPTER TWO

HOW TO USE THE BOOK

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HOW TO USE THE BOOK

There are several ways of finding information in this handbook. Ideally, the introduction will be read first, followed by Chapter One and this chapter. Thereafter, each of the other sections can be pertinent by itself.

The main feature of the book is a chapter of typical Navy managerial problems (Chapter Three) and a chapter of the applicable social science concepts (Chapter Four). Both problems and concepts are identified individually by an alphanumeric (e.g. M104), and the concepts all have descriptive titles. Each of the problems represents the wide range of problems encountered in the fleet. Some are worded generally while others are worded as they would be stated or perceived by an individual. You can browse through Chapter Three, using your imagination to match your own management problems to the ones expressed here. The problem categories are:

1. Personal Problems - problems of a particular individual.
2. Enlisted Problems - as seen from the enlisted view, both junior and senior.
3. Officer Problems - as seen from the officer view, both junior and senior.
4. Unit Problems - as seen by a CO or XO.
5. Navy Problems - general problems that are Navywide.

6. American Problems - general American problems that are relevant to the Navy.

7. Human Problems - problems of mankind in general that are relevant to the Navy.

After the statement of each problem, a list of applicable social science concepts to be found in Chapter Four are listed. The purpose is to lead you from a problem to a selected cross section of concepts that should aid in its solution. Some of the concepts may not bear on your specific problem, but the concepts are not chosen to be solutions in themselves. They can provide you with an idea or a new perspective that you may not have thought of before. They can provide you with more alternative solutions in order to help you make sounder decisions. Space has been left for you to add the alphanumerics of additional concepts to those listed for each problem, where you find certain ones particularly helpful.

Another way to use this handbook is to choose one of the social sciences that interests you and go directly to the concepts in Chapter Four. The concepts are categorized by social science, and the concepts are arranged vertically in logical sequence so as to be readable together. In addition, at the end of each concept, there is a reading list number that refers to books and other sources that expand upon that concept.

The Glossary is a further source of help. It contains two types of words. The first are new or special words that

are unique and necessary to understanding particular social sciences. The second type of word covers, to the extent possible, meanings for all the words you might otherwise have to look up in a dictionary.

The Index is divided into two parts: problem index and concept index. The problem index takes liberties in pointing to several listed problems for a given topic. The concept index lists the concept titles. Both show the alphanumeric codes.

Some blank pages have been included at the end of Chapter Three, Chapter Four, and the Glossary for you to add problems, concepts, or solutions of your own.

CHAPTER THREE

PROBLEMS

INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

PROBLEM I 001: Dissatisfaction with present circumstances

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	MIL 071	PSY 017	PSY 102	SP 051	A 019
003	139	025	SP 002	160	M 082
004	140	028	016	SOC 013	083
008	151	048	017	058	084
023	H 017	070	026	061	142
024	PSY 002	072	036	068	P 022
033	009	088	038	072	026

PROBLEM I 002: Status and self-esteem

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 031	PSY 004	SP 017	SP 130	SOC 016	P 021
139	048	018	160	072	022
140	057	035		M 081	025
141	088	036	SOC 002	082	026
PSY 001	103	038	003	083	
002	SP 002	043	007	P 016	
003	016	051	013	018	

PROBLEM I 003: Self-confidence

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 008	PSY 002	SP 002	SP 049	SOC 034	P 022
024	017	007	130		025
072	048	013		M 083	
139	057	016			
140	088	017	A 019	P 018	
141	102	027			
		035			

PROBLEM I 004: Lack of education

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 003	PSY 021	PSY 055	SP 002	SOC 013	P 018
006	024	056	035	014	021
007	025	070	051	077	025
	031	088	130	A 015	027
	033	090		019	
	048	091			

PROBLEM I 005: Anxiety

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 139	PSY 102	SOC 033	SP 007	SP 113
PSY 017	088	P 022	035	130
057	095		038	
079	096		043	
080			051	

PROBLEM I 006: Alienation

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	PSY 002	SP 002	SOC 016	M 082	H 005
003	017	007	033	083	019
004	048	027	068	OD 014	
008	057	035	072	P 018	
015	088	038	A 003	021	
024	102	040	011	022	
033	118	051	015	023	
085	119	130	019	026	

PROBLEM I 007: Fears

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 057	SP 059	SOC 007
048	130	
079	160	
088		
095		
102		

PROBLEM I 008: Racial prejudice and discrimination

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	PSY 002	PSY 088	SP 002	SP 039	A 014
003	027	089	005	040	M 083
004	034	095	007	041	
007	047	096	011	042	
008	048	098	012	113	
015	055	099	013	114	
023	056	101	015	128	
024	071	102	026		
033	081		037		

PROBLEM I 009: Peer pressure

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 003	MIL 023	PSY 048	SP 002	SP 038	SOC 007	P 021
004	024	057	027	052	A 003	022
008	093	088	035	059	015	023
015	100	102	036	070	OD 014	026

PROBLEM I 010: No older mentor

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 048	SP 002	SP 085	SOC 007
MIL 008	016	086	048
PSY 085	017	104	051
PSY 114	018	105	A 003
	027	110	019
	035	111	P 026
	039	113	
	051	160	
	074		
	079		

PROBLEM I 011: Sexual frustration

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 004	PSY 078	SP 004	SP 021	SP 062
057	080	007	024	SOC 034
070	088	019	027	A 015
074	093	020	052	M 083
			059	

PROBLEM I 012: Frustration

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 009	MIL 089	PSY 036	PSY 102	SOC 016	M 083
024	093	055	120	024	084
031	100	056	SP 007	034	P 022
033	139	057	038	067	027
076	140	080	059	076	
077	141	085	084	A 014	
078	PSY 002	088	130	019	
079	017	093	SOC 015	M 082	

PROBLEM I 013: Lack of creativity and imagination

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 004	PSY 035	SP 002	SOC 067	A 001	P 006
023	036	016	072	008	024
024	054	017	076	009	025
076	088	052	015	010	
068	102	059	016	015	
054		095			
		113			
		114			
		118			

PROBLEM I 014: Coping with life

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 008	H 017	PSY 078	SP 002	SOC 007
019	PSY 002	079	007	014
023	003	085	027	034
024	009	088	035	076
033	017	090	036	A 015
100	019	091	038	019
139	025	095	040	M 083
140	048	096	051	P 018
	057	102	085	021
	070	120	104	022
		131	113	024
			130	025
			160	026

PROBLEM I 015: Conscientious objection/pacifism

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 008	PHY 087	SP 015	SP 106	A 019
020	095	036	107	P 019
PHY 002	096	038	113	021
017	102	044	132	023
056	SP 002	070	160	026
070	007	071	SOC 034	
078	014	072	POL 034	

PROBLEM I 016: Professional failure

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	PSY 017	PSY 084	PSY 102	SP 129	P 022
003	056	088	SP 015	163	021
004	070	095	036	SOC 072	OD 014
008	080	096	038	A 015	

PROBLEM I 017: No close friends

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 088	SP 020	SP 024	SP 027	SP 036	SP 133
M 083					

PROBLEM I 018: Infidelity in marriage

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 004	PSY 074	PSY 103	SP 020	SP 105	SOC 051
048	077	SP 004	021	106	077
057	088	007	024	107	M 083
069	095	019	057	160	OD 014
				SOC 034	

PROBLEM I 019: Venereal disease

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 070	SP 004	SP 163	P 022
078	007	SOC 007	OD 014
088	016	034	
102	132	E 045	

PROBLEM I 020: Financial mismanagement and debt

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 052	PSY 087	SP 007	SSP 160	M 140
PSY 047	102	015	SOC 007	M 027
070	120	057	A 015	
085		123	M 083	

PROBLEM I 021: Intercultural relations

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 002	PSY 070	PSY 102	SP 017	SP 040	SOC 076
004	079	104	027	042	A 002
018	085	SP 003	035	SOC 010	007
017	088	012	036	036	008
027	095	016	038	072	009
					012

PROBLEM I 022: Hostility

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 008	MIL 086	PSY 017	PSY 079	PSY 104-116		SOC 065
010	088	024	080	SP 007	SP 050	073
016	089	018	084	011	057	075
024	090	025	087	014	060	081
037	094	027	088	026	069	POL 054
039	102	034	095	027	082	081
041	113	053	096	035	112	A 015
044	114	056	097	036	148	020
056	115	069	098	038	083	M 085
084	116	070	100	039	SOC 069	OD 012
085	PSY 004	078	103	043		SP 015

PROBLEM:I 023: Immaturity

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 050	PSY 032	PSY 088	SP 050	A 016
080	045	089	051	020
081	046	090	052	M 086
082	053	091	055	087
PSY 001	055	093	056	103
002	065	094	059	P 024
004	069	095	084	027
031	078	096	110	021
030	079	098	111	OD 014
037	083	099	112	
	084	103	133	
	085	122	162	
			163	

PROBLEM I 024: Tolerance of situations of others

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 010	MIL 090	PSY 025	PSY 103	SP 111
002	011	091	026	104	148
003	012	092	034	105	SOC 007
004	013	093	053	SP 005	081
005	014	094	055	007	A 007
006	015	102	058	014	008
007	016	108	069	016	009
009	018	109	084	026	015
023	080	113	082	035	020
037	081		088	036	M 085
041	082	H 013	102	038	086
075	083	H 014	103	039	P 023
	084	PSY 024	104	040	027

PROBLEM I 025: Personality clashes

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 073	MIL 075	PSY 094	SP 106	P 023
077	PSY 058	095	118	027
PSY 004	060	096	125	OD 014
034	063	097	126	
046	064	102	133-142	
054	067	103	143	
069	087	104	148-154	
078	088	105	156	
079	091	106	A 016	
080	092	122	020	
084	093	SP 026	M 086	

PROBLEM I 026: Choosing life goals

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 001	PSY 069	PSY 093	SP 020	SP 107	M 025
002	070	094	021	163	023
004	073	095	024	SOC 002	086
036	077	098	027	003	087
037	079	099	036	007	103
038	080	101	038	018	P 016
044	084	SP 003	050	025	018
045	008	004	056	050	019
046	089	005	057	073	021
053	090	007	059	077	022
063	091	015	105	A 003	024
064	092	019	106	020	M 151

PROBLEM I 027: Troubled marriage

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 039	PSY 046	PSY 077	SP 003	SP 103	SP 148
084	056	080	004	104	SOC 033
089	058	084	005	105	046
090	059	087	016	106	047
150	060	088	019	107	048
151	061	090	020	108	049
PSY 001	062	093	021	109	050
002	063	094	023	110	051
004	066	096	015	125	081
025	067	102	024	126	P 023
027	068	103	027	130	
034	070	122	102	132	

PROBLEM I 028: Identity

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

ENLISTED PROBLEMS

ENLISTED PROBLEMS

PROBLEM ENL 001: Everybody tells me what to do. I don't know who my boss really is.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 038	MIL 080	PSY 079	PSY 104	SP 095	M 054
037	098	088	105	SOC 013	056
039	102	093	106	M 050	059
040	PSY 053	103	110	051	

PROBLEM ENL 002: Before coming into the Navy, I had four years experience as a draftsman. They made me a cook.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 039	PSY 026	PSY 093	SP 056	SOC 007	M 057
080	046	103	060	013	059
090	081	128	118	025	068
098	083	SP 002	122	027	153
102	084	016	129	063	157
PSY 025	088		163	064	155

PROBLEM ENL 003: These young sailors today get promoted to first class, even Chief, in half the time it took me. I have twice the experience, but they get the same pay and privileges. How come?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 003	PSY 069	SP 015	SP 040	SP 118	A 008
097	079	016	048	122	016
098	088	026	060	127	020
PSY 004	096	035	098	SOC 013	M 011
037	103	038	111	058	012
058	SP 002	039	116	POL 016	013
					086
					154
					P 023

PROBLEM ENL 004: As a Chief, I know times have changed, but these young punks don't have any respect for the Navy, the uniform, the flag or anyone who stays in for a career. To hell with them.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

P 027	MIL 084	PSY 025	SP 015	SP 122
MIL 010	086	034	016	125
015	087	057	117	126
016	089	069	035	133
023	090-093	087	038	148
029	094	088	039	136
037	113-153	093	043	SOC 007
039	H 013	094	048	A 016
080	014	096	050	020
081	015	103-116	060	P 018
082	PSY 004	SP 002	078	021
083	017	007	116	028
	018	012	121	OD 014

PROBLEM ENL 005: They say they care about you, but they really don't. The first chance they get, they put it to you. You're just a slave if you're non-rated.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 023	MIL 049	PSY 053	SP 007	SP 044	M 059
037	090-093	069	014	111	071
038	094	078	016	118	085
039	102	079	024	133	086
040	103	087	031	160	087
041	108	095	035	SOC 007	P 021
042	109	103	036	027	023
045	PSY 002	104	038	A 020	027
057	004	106	039	M 002	
058	017	122	050	003	

PROBLEM ENL 006: My recruiter deceived me into thinking I could get into (school/--rate/Seabees) after boot camp, but I didn't get it.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 049	MIL 103	PSY 087	SP 036	M 085	M 153
058	053	092	163	086	155
072	044	103	SOC 013	087	156
082	046	SP 002	077	151	157
098	084	015	083	152	P 021
P 022	OD 007	M 159	065		

PROBLEM ENL 007: Nobody ever asks you to do anything. They always tell you what to do.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 037	MIL 102	PSY 103	SP 056	A 020	M 090
039	PHY 004	129	060	M 065	092
045	PSY 053	SP 016	088	066	OD 014
086	057	031	111	066	
090-093	066	038	124	085	
094	079	039	133	086	
098	087	050	SOC 016	087	

PROBLEM ENL 008: Why does my Chief get so upset when I ask him "Why?"

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 037	PSY 004	SP 002	SP 111	POL 054	P 025
039	017	007	116	A 020	027
052	025	015	118	M 067	M 066
056	053	026	125	071	
080	057	035	126	085	
086	066	039	129	086	
090-093	069	050	133	065	
094	079	056	148	087	
096	080	057	163	090	
098	087	059	SOC 037	OD 014	
102	103	060	057	008	
		092	065	P 021	

PROBLEM ENL 009: Why does the Navy have so many rules and regulations?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 037	PSY 025	PSY 069	SP 041-048	SOC 007	M 065
038	027	SP 002	049-059	008	085
039	028	007	072	013	090
040	029	PSY 023	085	014	102
041	030	SP 029	088	018	141
064	031	031	089	058	142
085	034	032	094	A 010	150
087	035	033	098	016	158
089	037	034	115	020	P 027
090-093	046	035	123	M 006	016
102	053	036	133-142	016	SOC 065
107	054	037	143-147	030	M 041
153	055	038	160	047	

PROBLEM ENL 010: Why does the Navy get so uptight about drug use? It's my body, and it should be up to me what I do to it.



PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 021	MIL 084	PSY 020	PSY 122	SP 118	M 009
037	086	021	128	129	010
039	087	022	SP 003	163	014
040	089	027	007	SOC 007	041
045	090-093	046	035	065	066
050	098	057	036	POL 035	086
052	104	069	037	083	103
056	107	087	038	A 016	P 021
064	PSY 002	088	039	020	022
069	005-017	089	049-060	E 003	
074	019	096	069	045	
080		103	072		

PROBLEM ENL 011: I spent twenty - - years in the Navy, made Chief, and now they have changed all the rules on me. The new seaman today has just as many privileges as I do. What's the incentive to working to make Chief now?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 041	PSY 025	PSY 096	SOC 071	SP 113	M 073
045	027	103	007	116	085
054	057	SP 002	010	118	087
047	069	007	013	132	086
058	079	015	018	133	090
094	080	016	058	163	A 008
098	084	017	065	M 007	010
102	087	026	068	009	016
104	088	035	069	010	017
152	095	036	073	067	020
153	090	037	SP 049-060	068	P 021
PSY 004	091	038	109	071	025
017	092	039	113	066	027
M 066					

PROBLEM ENL 012: I don't agree with a lot of the things the officers tell me.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 037	MIL 084	MIL 102	PSY 025	PSY 087
002	039	085	150	027	088
003	041	086	151	034	093
005	045	087	152	046	094
010	056	089	153	053	096
018	077	090-094		069	103
023	080	098	PSY 002	080	SP 002
025	082	101	004	084	007

SP 014	SP 039	SP 125	SOC 016	SOC 078	P 023
016	040	126	058	A 020	025
017	041	133	061	M 065	027
035	049	143	067	071	M 066
036	073	148	068	076	
038	121	162	069	085	

PROBLEM ENL 013: I don't understand a lot of the things that the officers tell me.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 048	MIL 098	PSY 034	PSY 093	SP 082	SOC 007
080	102	036	115	085	A 013
082	105	037	119	088	020
084	113	044	122	092	M 013
085	PSY 025	046	SP 016	133	041
086	027	053	017	143	066
087	029	054	027	148	087
089	030	055	035	162	P 027
090-093	031	069	052	SOC 010	

PROBLEM ENL 014: I'd like to make rate, but I'll never learn all the stuff on the exam. I find it hard to learn from a correspondence course.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 047	PSY 021	PSY 030	PSY 045	PSY 083	SP 015
067	022	031	046	084	057
071	023	033	050	087	147
078	024	035	053	095	SOC 077
090	025	036	055	096	M 023
097	027	037	069	103	159
PSY 004	028	038	079	119	P 021
020	029	044	081	122	022

PROBLEM ENL 015: The orient impresses me as a foul-smelling, dirty place where I feel very uncomfortable. I feel that Americans are generally cleaner, smarter, and more squared away than orientals are.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 045	PSY 017	PSY 032	PSY 057	PSY 088	PSY 096
052	018	046	069	089	098
056	025	047	070	090	102
073	026	052	078	091	103
PSY 004	027	053	087	092	SP 003



SP 009	SP 015	SP 056	SP 118	POL 054	A 015
011	016	060	127	A 002	010
012	017	111	128	008	011
013	039	112	SOC 010	009	E 004
M 086	P 023				

PROBLEM ENL 016: I thought I was doing okay until evaluation time. Then he hands me this lousy report!

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 045	PSY 053	SP 082	A 020	M 087	A 021
049	079	133	M 009	090	022
053	083	143-147	014	092	025
058	087	148-154	071	148	027
098	128	156	078	149	
102	SP 015	162	079	155	
PSY 004	024	SOC 008	086	162	

PROBLEM ENL 017: Why shouldn't I "gundeck" records? Everyone else does.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 049	MIL 080	MIL 107	SP 007	M 010	M 149
050	081	PSY 069	049-060	020	
058	082	087	085	041	
064	086	103	163	066	
072	090-093		M 009	144	

PROBLEM ENL 018: Why do we have so many inspections?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 016	MIL 090-093		SP 031	SP 100	SOC 008
032	102	PSY 027	032	101	056
041	104	029	035	115	065
064	150	030	041-048	118	073
086	151	031	083	132	A 008
087	153	079	094	163	009
089	PSY 025	SP 002	099	SOC 007	010
	M 141	M 143	P 014		OD 014

PROBLEM ENL 019: Why does my Chief (or LPO) get so angry when I don't do things his way?



PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 037	MIL 094	PSY 069	SP 006	SP 132	M 016
038	098	078	007	133	048
039	102	079	015	148	050
040	150	080	031	162	065
041	151	084	032	SOC 007	066
042	152	087	035	013	066
045	153	088	038	057	067
052	PSY 004	089	050	058	068
080	017	090	063	061	071
082	025	091	072	065	085
084	027	092	078	068	086
085	034	093	082	073	087
086	035	094	083	A 008	090
087	053	095	092	016	092
089	057	096	094	020	P 023
090	060	103	118	E 047	025
091	063	122	125	M 006	027
092	066	SP 002	126	009	OD 014
093	067	003	129	010	

PROBLEM ENL 020: I resent being forced to perform a task that doesn't need doing just to keep me busy during working hours. Make-Work is unfair.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 037	MIL 089	PSY 069	SP 031	SOC 061	M 067
038	090	079	032	065	068
040	091	080	035	068	071
041	092	081	050	069	085
045	093	082	056	073	086
049	094	083	057	A 010	087
052	096	087	061	016	090
056	098	088	083	020	142
058	102	093	085	E 045	148
064	150	094	088	M 006	149
069	151	103	094	014	P 022
070	152	128	095	016	023
071	153	129	118	024	025
080	PSY 002	SP 002	SOC 007	023	027
082	004	007	013	052	OD 007
084	025	014	015	054	014
085	027	015	027	065	
086	037	016	057	066	
087	053	017	058	066	



PROBLEM ENL 021: How is it that my division officer is supposed to be the ----- officer and doesn't even know as much about the gear as I do?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 029	MIL 104	SP 002	SP 050	SOC 073
002	038	106	003	092	077
003	041	150	007	085	079
004	042	151	016	133	080
005	044	152	017	162	POL 025
008	047	153	015	163	026
009	062	PSY 004	035	SOC 008	E 047
010	062	069	036	013	M 009
018	102	087	038	066	066
023	103	088	042	068	141
		M 142	M 149	M 157	P 014

PROBLEM ENL 022: Why is there a double standard between the rules for officers and the rules for enlisteds?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 037	MIL 152	SP 014	SP 092	
002	039	153	015	109	SOC 071
003	041	H 014	016	148	073
004	045	PSY 004	017	160	077
005	058	053	031	163	080
008	086	058	032	SOC 007	POL 058
009	088	069	035	008	A 009
010	098	070	038	010	010
011	101	079	039	018	016
012	102	080	056	057	023
013	103	084	057	058	M 065
014	105	087	060	061	066
015	107	088	072	062	066
016	108	093	073	065	076
017	109	103	080	066	085
018	150	SP 002	078	067	090
025	151	007	082	068	142
				P 025	162

PROBLEM ENL 023: What's the big deal if I'm a few minutes late? The officers act as if I killed someone.



PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 038	MIL 089	PSY 069	SP 069	SOC 061	M 162
040	090	087	083	073	P 021
045	091	088	101	077	027
050	092	093	094	A 010	OD 014
052	093	103	115	M 006	
057	094	128	125	009	
058	102	SP 002	126	010	
064	107	035	132	066	
076	108	039	133	071	
080	151	049	162	102	
082	PSY 025	050	163	141	
084	027	056	SOC 007	142	
085	029	057	008	149	
086	037	060	013	150	

PROBLEM ENL 024: Why can't I be me instead of the image that officers have of a good little sailor?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 003	MIL 087	PSY 004	SP 015	SP 072	A 020
004	089	025	016	083	M 008
010	090	027	017	113	006
015	091	034	024	115	016
016	092	037	025	116	065
018	093	053	035	133	066
037	094	069	036	163	071
039	098	079	037	SOC 007	085
040	100	080	038	008	086
045	101	087	039	010	087
046	102	088	041	013	090
080	103	103	050	061	141
081	105	SP 002	051	058	142
082	107	003	052	065	149
083	151	004	056	066	162
084	152	005	057	073	P 022
085	153	006	067	077	023
086	PSY 002	007	069	A 016	025
					027
					OD 015

PROBLEM ENL 025: Why do we have ceremonies in the Navy?



PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 083	MIL 092	MIL 153	SP 056	A 008	M 141
084	093	PSY 069	148	009	142
085	095	103	156	010	149
086	113	SP 002	SOC 018	020	P 025
089	114	036	056	M 042	027
090	150	049	070	065	OD 014
091	151	050	A 007	066	
	152				

PROBLEM ENL 026: What good are customs and traditions?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 071	MIL 101	MIL 102	MIL 140	MIL 139	MIL 141
H 016	SOC 018	SOC 055	SOC 072		

PROBLEM ENL 027: Why do seniors always act so damn serious about everything? No one ever laughs or seems to enjoy anything.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 019	MIL 067	PSY 131	SP 002	SP 006	SP 035
SP 052	A 019	P 016			

PROBLEM ENL 028: Except for rank, why is an officer any better than I am?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 086	MIL 098	PSY 102	SP 160	M 083
002	087	097	SP 002	SOC 014	084
031	089	H 019	015	015	P 018
034	091	PSY 002	035	016	SOC 010
033	092	088	039	M 082	MIL 024

PROBLEM ENL 029: Why do we wear uniforms?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 077	MIL 139	SP 002	SOC 007	A 009	MIL 078
101	140	049	013	010	079
102	141	056	072	016	024
106	H 015	070	POL 034	019	
108	PSY 002	094	035	E 003	
113	088	097	A 008	007	



PROBLEM ENL 030: Why do I have to salute officers? They are no better than me.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 033	MIL 078	MIL 098	MIL 114	PSY 002	SOC 013
034	079	100	139	088	077
039	091	101	140	103	P 026
080	092	105	141	SP 002	MIL 024
077	097	107	H 019	043	

PROBLEM ENL 031: My supervisor is down on me and leans on me just because I messed up a couples of times in the past.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 017	MIL 024	MIL 033	MIL 034	MIL 049	MIL 072
MIL 078	MIL 086	MIL 094	PSY 002	PSY 088	SP 084
SP 148	M 136	M 137	M 082	P 026	OD 014

PROBLEM ENL 032: I am homesick and it is interfering with my duties and my state of mind.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PSY 017	PSY 019	PSY 025	PSY 028	PSY 070	PSY 088
SP 007					

PROBLEM ENL 032: I keep my equipment in good operating order. Why does my supervisor continue to hassle me?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 034	MIL 078	PSY 002	SP 084	M 082	P 026
041	079	088	M 009	085	OD 014
056	097	055	010	142	



OFFICER PROBLEMS



OFFICER PROBLEMS

PROBLEM OFF 001: What is the best leadership style that a Commanding Officer (Executive Officer) should use? There has to be a better way than the one mine is using.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	MIL 092	SP 043	SP 082	M 009	M 064
001	PSY 088	063	083	010	066
003	089	064	084	013	071
004	090	074	094	021	082
008	091	075	133	022	083
035	092	076	148	043	084
033	SP 002	077	159	045	085
086	008	077	SOC 007	060	087
087	016	079	077	061	092
089	017	080	A 019	063	105
091	035	081	M 003	062	OD 014
P 014	P 021	P 022	P 023	P 024	P 025
					P 026

PROBLEM OFF 002: Black sailors usually speak poor English which accounts for the communication difficulties that occur.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 088	PSY 070	SP 011	SP 040	SP 133	A 011
089	088	012	042	148	012
PSY 018	097	016	115	159	015
032	099	017	118	A 006	
034	101	026	120	007	
055	102	036	128	008	
056	SP 013	038	129	009	

PROBLEM OFF 003: How can I get some better ideas from my people?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	PSY 034	PSY 087	SP 043	SOC 008	M 017
008	035	102	051	059	018
025	036	107	094	061	022
032	037	128	095	067	030
035	044	SP 002	096	A 019	043
089	046	013	117	M 007	062
PSY 004	047	016	120	013	061
020	055	024	148	015	064
029	070	035	159	016	066



M 079	M 082	M 083	M 084	M 085	M 087
097	100	136	142	P 027	P 022
OD 014					

PROBLEM OFF 004: What should I do to become a good leader?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 046	MIL 101	PSY 063	SP 074	M 083
002	071	H 013	072	085	084
008	094	017	088	094	P 018
016	097	PSY 002	102	133	021
019	098	005	128	A 019	022
025	099	020	SP 002	M 021	026
035	100	055	029	082	

PROBLEM OFF 005: As a manager, what functions must I perform?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 004	MIL 036	M 021	M 022	M 028	M 060
M 136	M 147				

PROBLEM OFF 006: What are these new human relations ideas all about?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 033	MIL 098	PSY 002	SP 084	SOC 058	M 026
034	099	048	115	M 082	072
093	100	088	113	083	
097	H 019	SP 002	MIL 039	084	

PROBLEM OFF 007: It seems to me we run the Navy like it has been run for the last hundred years. Is there a state-of-the-art to management we don't know about?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	MIL 093	M 045	M 054	M 085	M 136
002	M 004	046	055	086	142
003	013	047	056	087	147
004	021	048	060	088	P 026
007	022	049	061	089	
008	028	050	065	097	
019	036	051	082	098	
036	043	052	083	099	
076	044	053	084	100	



PROBLEM OFF 008: I have a hard time making tough decisions.
Are there any rules or guidelines?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 097 M 099 M 100

PROBLEM OFF 009: As XO I have to call a lot of meetings. How
can I conduct them more effectively?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 067 M 065 M 022 M 088

PROBLEM OFF 010: What the hell are these basic management
principles the XO is always referring to?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 043	M 044	M 045	M 046	M 047	M 048
049	050	052	053	054	055
056					

PROBLEM OFF 011: Is there any difference between problem-
solving and decision-making?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 097 M 098 M 099 M 100

PROBLEM OFF 012: I'd like to delegate more authority, but my
people are just not experienced enough to
perform to the standards I demand for the
unit.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 045	MIL 024	PSY 072	M 136
046	033	102	137
049	089	SOC 066	142
050	PSY 070	P 022	145
053	088	026	146

PROBLEM OFF 013: How do you make a good policy?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 011 M 012 M 013



PROBLEM OFF 014: As the ships supply officer, I feel like I am a second class citizen as the only staff officer in an otherwise all line wardroom. It doesn't help when the Captain is always calling me "Porkchop" in front of all the other officers, many of whom are junior to me.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	PSY 004	PSY 088	PSY 017	PSY 040	PSY 115
003	048	102	036	046	M 069
004	070	002	037	051	MIL 102
PSY 002	072	016	038	085	

PROBLEM OFF 015: Just when I get to know my job well enough, I get transferred to a new job. Why can't they leave you in one place for a while?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 016: I know I'm doing a great job, but I'm going to look bad in a relative sense because all of the other officers of my rank in the unit are in more superior billets.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 085 M 086

PROBLEM OFF 017: As division officer, I have a weak chief who is a nice guy with long service, but he won't make decisions and is not very effective at running the division. He does his best, but it is not enough. He retires next year, and there will be no replacement for him until then.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 150 M 151 M 153 PSY 048 SP 115 P 025

PROBLEM OFF 018: So far it seems to me that naval officers just follow established procedure rather than use their imagination or creativity.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 004 MIL 076 PSY 035 SOC 067 M 079 M 142
P 026 SOC 013 SOC 014 SOC 015 SOC 016

PROBLEM OFF 019: All I have is problems in my job, and most of them seem to have no solutions.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 097 M 099 M 100

PROBLEM OFF 020: I enjoy the Navy life so far, but if I make it a career, all I see to strive for is to join a tight bureaucracy within which you can make little impact. Why should I stay in?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

M 013 M 014 M 015 M 016 M 017 MIL 002
MIL 003 MIL 004 MIL 024

PROBLEM OFF 021: Why are senior officers so reluctant to change?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002 MIL 003 MIL 004 MIL 008 MIL 139 MIL 140
PSY 048 PSY 088 SP 118 A 016 A 019 P 022
P 024 P 026

PROBLEM OFF 022: No one listens to a new idea. They always do it the way we always have done it.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 023: No one ever asks the junior officers what their opinion is about anything.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM OFF 024: Why do sailors from broken homes always seem to give me problems?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 025: Why do we do everything by the book?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 026: Should I strive to be a generalist or a specialist?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 027: I don't really know what my job is supposed to be as a division officer. I don't have any power.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 028: Should I stay in or get out of the Navy?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 029: The Navy seems to be trying to force me to be a certain kind of out-of-the-mold type of officer rather than myself.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM OFF 030: I really have problems in my Division and I really don't know where to start.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 031: How is a junior officer supposed to lead these days?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 032: What is the difference between discipline and punishment?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 033: What is the function of traditions and customs?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM OFF 034: Why do junior officers always want to change procedures and structures that have proven themselves over time?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

UNIT PROBLEMS



UNIT PROBLEMS

PROBLEM U 001: The unit is not in control of its destiny, rather higher commands determine it without full knowledge.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 002	MIL 035	PSY 048	SP 045	SOC 014	A 009
004	077	103	050	015	010
005	078	104	087	016	019
006	080	126	094	019	P 025
007	086	SP 002	095	059	026
018	137	006	109	060	M 003
019	139	007	118	061	021
027	140	011	120	066	029
028	PSY 025	115	129	069	043
029	028	015	133	070	045
030	070	016	SOC 007	POL 078	046
031	084	017	008	081	049
034	088	043	013	A 008	050
M 053	M 060	M 061	M 062	M 063	064
069	082	083	084	085	086
087	097	100	103	136	138
142	147				

PROBLEM U 002: Personnel turnover is so rapid that training is a constant problem.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 007	PSY 052	SOC 066	M 050	M 085	PSY 030
004	SOC 013	068	053	136	031
PSY 002	014	M 003	057	137	037
006	015	021	071	139	046
035	016	028	069	152	070
043	059	037	083	P 026	
051	063	049	084		

PROBLEM U 003: There are so many complex tasks to do, we can't keep track of them.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 004	PSY 008	PSY 028	PSY 102	SOC 067	M 048
005	020	055	SP 094	M 021	049
019	021	082	096	023	050
038	023	093	095	028	051
PSY 005	024	094	130	045	052
007	027	096	SOC 013	046	053

M 054	M 071	M 100	M 137	M 147	OD 009
060	085	102	138	OD 001	
065	093	106	139	002	
067	099	136	142	003	

PROBLEM U 004: We don't know where we are in gunnery/bombing/ advancement/disciplinary/problems/proficiency/ readiness.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 005: Retention rate is too low.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 006: The entire Navy sits on the unit's shoulders, contributing little help except in the form of more inspections, more standardization of procedures, more cost savings, and more paperwork, but less men, money and materials.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 007: The operating schedule is so full that the ship/squadron has no time to plan. Everything is a crisis.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 008: The chain of command above the unit does not really know what the score is.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM U 009: Is a taut ship a happy ship?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 010: Our ship is an old one and precludes any substantial participation in modern operations.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 011: Unit output is qualitative and cannot be measured.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 012: Ever since the new CO came aboard last year, the reenlistment rate has dropped to almost zero.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 013: Everytime something really needs to get done, they form a task force to do it. They hardly ever use the normal organization for such purposes.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 014: I can't remember the last time we had a ship's/squadron/office party.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM U 015: The CO/XO and Department Heads really work hard. They seldom leave until 1900, and are often in on weekends.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 016: Morale is low.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 017: What is the best form of management today?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 018: There is insufficient time to do everything we are supposed to do as managers.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 019: Morale is getting worse.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 020: We are undermanned, yet our commitments have increased or remained the same.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM U 021: Habitability for the crew is inadequate.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 022: Our ship (base/shop/hangar) was built only to last through World War II. It is inadequate for today's jobs.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 023: We can't operate enough because of fuel costs. Our training suffers because we can't steam (fly).

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM U 024: Senior commanders have lost touch with the realities in the operating units.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



NAVY PROBLEMS



NAVY PROBLEMS

PROBLEM N 001: Intercultural problem overseas

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 019	PSY 017	PSY 095	SP 017	SP 042	A 007
075	027	102	027	SOC 010	008
089	070	104	035	036	009
PSY 002	079	SP 003	036	072	012
004	085	012	038	076	
018	088	016	040	A 002	

PROBLEM N 002: Integrating women into the Navy

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 001	PSY 018	PSY 095	SP 012	SP 114	A 019
002	025	096	013	115	M 148
003	028	102	015	128	149
004	055	103	016	129	150
005	057	104	017	148	151
006	059	SP 002	018	160	153
008	070	004	019	SOC 007	P 023
035	071	003	020	008	026
039	078	006	021	009	
077	079	007	022	013	
089	085	009	024	019	
PSY 004	089	010	027	057	
017	088	011	035	059	
			040	067	
			051	072	
			063	076	
			095	A 015	

PROBLEM N 003: Generation gap

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 018	PSY 034	PSY 091	SP 037	SP 160	M 066
089	053	092	038	SOC 007	082
100	057	102	040	050	083
H 017	070	SP 003	042	A 019	084
PSY 004	081	015	110	M 060	085
017	088	016	127	061	P 021
025	089	017	133	062	023
028	090	036	148	066	025
					027
					OD 014



PROBLEM N 005: Drug and alcohol abuse

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 006: Bureaucracy

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 007: General ignorance of Navy customs and traditions and their origins.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 008: Motivation

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 009: Interpersonal communication

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 010: Prolonged readiness posture in cold war

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 011: Interpretation of directives

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 012: UCMJ reforms

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 013: Military unions

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 014: Family separations as a retention factor

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 015: There isn't enough money to do what needs to
be done.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 016: Our men retire after 20 years service at an
age when they are at the peak of their experi-
ence and ability.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:



PROBLEM N 017: The Navy has become a bureaucracy. It is too inefficient.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 018: Should naval officers be an elite group?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 019: Have we swallowed cost accounting to such an extreme that it leads rather than serves the Navy?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 020: Does the Navy have a responsibility to try to solve the personal problems of its men?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 021: What quality standards should be used in recruiting?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 022: Our "Can Do" tradition has caused us to conceal our weaknesses rather than correct them.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 023: Adapting to the all-volunteer force.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 024: Meeting the threat of the Soviet Navy.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 025: Making careers attractive.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 026: Sabotage

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 027: Jesus Freaks

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 028: A new administration every four years

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 029: Public support and prestige

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 030: The decline of the officer aristocracy

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 031: The enlisted technicians know much more about their equipment than most officers know.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 032: "I liked things better in the old days when people did what they were told and didn't ask why. Why can't we get back to simple authority where everyone knew where he stood?"

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 033: Minority sailors do not have the same chance to get ahead as white sailors have.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 034: Credibility

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 035: The ethics of behavioral modification.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 036: The impact of technology

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 037: Undermanning

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 038: The specialized training required today.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 039: The quality of recruits.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 040: Inadequate underway time/flight hours.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 041: Ordnance restrictions for training due to high cost.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 042: Usefulness of directives.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 043: Financial incentive options

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 044: Bad public relations.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 045: Promotion Opportunity.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM N 046: Uniform changes.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

AMERICAN PROBLEMS

AMERICAN PROBLEMS

PROBLEM AM 001: Why are so many American unable to relax
and gain pleasure from their leisure?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 078	PSY 070	SP 015	SP 118	A 017	P 016
079	088	016	160	019	018
PSY 002	092	026	SOC 008	M 006	019
004	102	027	016	025	021
025	SP 002	028	034	081	023
028	007	036	072	083	024
035	008	038	A 003	084	
057	009	052	016	P 014	

PROBLEM AM 002: How much national defense is enough?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 003: Do American institutions still have any
authority left?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 004: Why are less Americans going to church
regularly than ever before?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 005: The pace of life is so fast.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 006: What sort of person will be attracted to an all volunteer force? What are the dangers?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 007: Can civilian control of the military be guaranteed today?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 008: Do we need more control of the civilians who control the military?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 009: Changing morality

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 010: Decline in prestige of institutions

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 011: The decline of the family as an institution

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 012: The Generation Gap

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 013: Affluence

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 014: Pacifism/Conscientious Objection

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 014: High cost of living/inflation

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 015: Mistrust of government

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 016: Uncertain foreign affairs environment

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 017: Increase in terrorism/extremism

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 018: Decrease in popularity overseas

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 019: High unemployment

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 020: Materialism

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM AM 021: Social mobility

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

HUMAN PROBLEMS

HUMAN PROBLEMS

PROBLEM HUM 001: Racial and ethnic prejudice

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 008	PSY 004	PSY 057	PSY 097	PSY 122	SP 017
021	017	071	098	SP 005	026
031	018	070	099	007	026
039	026	074	100	009	038
102	027	085	101	011	040
PSY 001	034	088	102	012	042
002	056	089	103	013	113
SP 120	SP 160	SOC	104	015	114
128	SOC 007	072	A 003	016	115
132	008	076	011	P 014	118
	010	A 001	014	018	P 019
		P 023	P 025	P 026	

PROBLEM HUM 002: Decline of pleasure

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

MIL 078	PSY 070	SP 015	SP 086	A 016	P 014
079	088	016	118	017	016
PSY 002	092	026	160	019	018
004	102	027	SOC 008	M 006	019
025	SP 002	028	016	025	021
028	007	036	034	082	023
035	008	038	072	083	024
057	009	052	A 003	084	

PROBLEM HUM 003: The "establishment" is not satisfactory.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 004: Aggression in man.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 005: Understanding of human behavior

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 006: Dehumanization from technology

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 007: Ecumenism

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 008: Inadequacy of religion in contemporary life

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 009: Trend toward liberality

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 010: Food shortage

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 011: Population explosion

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 012: Energy crisis

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 013: Stereotyping people

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 014: Tolerance of others

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 015: Human needs

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 016: Scarce resources

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 017: Why do people use alcohol and illegal drugs?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 018: Philosophical needs.

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 019: The nature of man

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 020: What's it all about?

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 021: Need for higher education level

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

PROBLEM HUM 022: World peace

PERTINENT CONCEPTS:

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS

MILITARY CONCEPTS

MIL 001

THE MILITARY PROFESSIONAL

MIL 002

MILITARY PROFESSIONALISM

In keeping with the views of professionalism and profession expressed in Concept SOC 019 the military today can be thought of as a special type of vocation that has adopted professional attributes in order to further its professionalization and to encourage professional behavior from its members. It is not a true profession, however, in the strictest sociological meaning, except during wartime. The basic attributes of its professionalism, as described by Huntington, are expertise, responsibility and corporateness.¹¹

The expertise of what he calls officership exists in the central skill of "the management of violence," and in the function of military forces to conduct successful armed combat.¹² Huntington also points out that not every officer in the military is this sort of professional. He states, "The direction, operation, and control of a human organization whose primary function is the application of violence is the peculiar skill of the officer. It is common to the activities of the air, land and sea officers. It distinguishes the military officer from the other specialists which exist in the modern armed services. The skills of these experts may be necessary to the achievement of the objectives of the military force. But they are basically auxiliary vocations, having the same relation to the expertise of the officer as the skills of the nurse,

chemist, laboratory technician, dietician, pharmacist, and X-ray technician have to the expertise of the doctor. None of the auxiliary specialists contained within or serving the military profession is capable of the 'management of violence,' just as none of the specialists aiding the medical profession is capable of the diagnosis and treatment of illness. The essence of officership is embodied in the traditional admonition to Annapolis men that their duty will be to "fight the fleet." Individuals, such as doctors, who are not competent to manage violence but who are members of the officer corps are normally distinguished by special titles and insignia and are excluded from positions of military command. They belong to the officer corps in its capacity as an administrative organization of the state, but not in its capacity as a professional body The variety of conditions under which violence may be employed and the different forms in which it may be applied form the basis for subprofessional specialization. They also form the basis for evaluating relative technical competence. The larger and more complex the organizations of violence which an officer is capable of directing, and the greater the number of situations and conditions under which he can be employed, the higher is his professional competence. A man who is capable of directing only the activities of an infantry squad has such a low level of professional ability as to be almost on the border line. A man who can manage the operations of an airborne division or a carrier task force is

a highly competent professional. The officer who can direct the complex activities of a combined operation involving large-scale sea, air, and land forces is at the top of his vocation."¹³

Finally, he makes a compelling case for the complex nature of the expert officer. "It is readily apparent that the military function requires a high order of expertise. No individual, whatever his inherent intellectual ability and qualities of character and leadership, could perform these functions efficiently without considerable training and experience. In emergencies an untrained civilian may be capable of acting as a military officer at a low level for a brief period of time, just as in emergencies the intelligent layman may fill in until the doctor arrives. Before the management of violence became the extremely complex task that it is in modern civilization, it was possible for someone without specialized training to practice officership. Now, however, only the person who completely devotes his working hours to this task can hope to develop a reasonable level of professional competence. The skill of the officer is neither a craft (which is primarily mechanical) nor an art (which requires unique and nontransferable talent). It is instead an extraordinarily complex intellectual skill requiring comprehensive study and training. It must be remembered that the peculiar skill of the officer is the management of violence not the act of violence itself. Firing a rifle, for instance, is basically a mechanical craft;

directing the operation of a rifle company requires an entirely different type of ability which may in part be learned from books and in part from practice and experience. The intellectual content of the military profession requires the modern officer to devote about one-third of his professional life to formal schooling, probably a higher ratio of educational time to practice time than in any other profession. In part this reflects the limited opportunities of the officer to acquire practical experience at the most important elements of his vocation. But to a large degree it also reflects the extreme complexity of the military expertise."¹⁴

The responsibility of officership takes the form of a special social responsibility. Society sustains the military professional as a means of providing itself with military security from the threats of potential enemies. Society monopolizes the military because its protection is the reason the military exists and refines its expertise in managing violence. Huntington states, "To some extent the officer's behavior toward the state is guided by an explicit code expressed in law and comparable to the canons of professional ethics of the physician and lawyer. To a larger extent, the officer's code is expressed in custom, tradition, and the continuing spirit of the profession."¹⁵

"The corporateness of officership starts with the issuing of a commission to a new officer. He usually begins his service at the lowest point of knowledge and rank. The

professional world of the officer tends to encompass an unusually high proportion of his activities. He normally lives and works apart from the rest of society; physically and socially he probably has fewer nonprofessional contacts than most other professional men. The line between him and the layman or civilian is publicly symbolized by uniforms and insignia of rank.

The officer corps is both a bureaucratic profession and a bureaucratic organization. Within the profession, levels of competence are distinguished by a hierarchy of office. Rank inheres in the individual and reflects his professional achievement measured in terms of experience, seniority, education, and ability. Appointments to rank are normally made by the officer corps itself applying general principles established by the state. Assignments to office are normally somewhat more subject to outside influence. In all bureaucracies authority derives from office; in a professional bureaucracy eligibility for office derives from rank. An officer is permitted to perform certain types of duties and functions by virtue of his rank; he does not receive rank because he has been assigned to an office. Although in practice there are exceptions to this principle, the professional character of the officer corps rests upon the priority of the hierarchy of rank over the hierarchy of office."¹⁶

"As a result of the complex machinery of warfare, which has weakened the line between military and non-military organization, the military establishment has come more and more to display the characteristics typical of any large scale organization. Nevertheless, the military professional is unique because he is an expert in war-making and in the organized use of violence. This primary goal of the military establishment creates its special environment and influences its decision-making process. Social background, military authority, and career experiences condition the perspectives of its leaders. The style of life of the military community and a sense of military honor serve to perpetuate professional distinctiveness. Recognition of the specialized attributes of the military will provide a realistic basis for maintaining civilian political supremacy without destroying required professional autonomy."¹⁷

"The history of the modern military establishment can be described as a struggle between heroic leaders, who embody traditionalism and glory, and military 'managers' who are concerned with the scientific and rational conduct of war. This distinction is fundamental. The military manager reflects the scientific and pragmatic dimensions of war-making; he is the professional with effective links to civilian society.

The heroic leader is a perpetuation of the warrior type, the mounted officer who embodies the martial spirit and the theme of personal valor."¹⁸

"No bureaucracy ever conforms to the ideal model of rational organization. And in the operational logic of the military establishment, as long as there are dangerous and irksome tasks to be done, an engineering philosophy cannot suffice as the organizational basis of the armed forces. Particularly in a free-enterprise, profit-motivated society, the military establishment requires a sense of duty and honor to accomplish its objectives. Heroism is an essential part of the calculations of even the most rational and self-critical military thinkers ..."¹⁹

"Certainly, traditional loyalties are essential for all organizations, but in the military establishment they are peculiarly powerful. The development of a rational approach to innovation cannot supplant an uncritical willingness to face danger - the essence of the martial spirit. In a sense, the distinction between the military manager and the heroic leader can easily be misunderstood. Military managers-in the ground, air and naval forces-are aware that they direct combat organizations. They consider themselves to be brave men, prepared to face danger. But they are mainly concerned with the most rational and economic ways of winning wars or avoiding them. They are less concerned with war as a way of life. Heroic leaders, in turn, claim that they have the proper

formula for the conduct of war. They would deny that they are anti-technological. But for them the heroic traditions of fighting men, which can only be preserved by military honor, military tradition, and the military way of life, are crucial.

As a result, the military profession is confronted with a persistent dilemma, and this dilemma is deepened by the growth of automated warfare. The profession must recruit and retain officers who are skilled in military management for its elite, but, at the same time, many of its officers, including the most conspicuous ones, must be able to perpetuate the traditions of the heroic leader. It is, of course, possible for one man to embody both roles, and World War II did produce a number of officers of this variety who have risen to key leadership positions. However, in tracing the impact of military organization on the political perspectives of its leading professionals, it is insufficient to point out that military managers have grown in number and influence. The martial spirit continues to give the military profession its distinctive outlook, and to mold even its military managers. Modern trends make it difficult to imbue the fighter spirit in the next generation of officers, and the civilian population is often ambivalent about its implications. While civilian leaders may be able to control the strategic policies of the military establishment, they cannot dispense with heroic leadership."²⁰

"... the military establishment requires balance between heroic leaders and military managers. Although both of these roles are performed in the same institution, or, for that matter, by a single person, there is an important element of antagonism between them. The military manager requires a sense of cosmopolitanism and detachment which is inhibited by the style of life in the military community. The forms of military social life, plus the social origins of the profession, make the development of a cosmopolitan outlook difficult. One who is well travelled is not necessarily cosmopolitan. Where cosmopolitanism does develop in the military, it results from educational experience and conscious personal effort rather than from the social life or protocol of the military community."²¹

"To identify the managerial aspects of top military command does not deny the important element of tension which exists between the emotional, physical, and technical requirements of many initial assignments of a combat officer - such as the fighter pilot or the paratrooper - and the requirements of higher command. Most members of the contemporary military elite have had to display the ability to shift from the skill requirements of lower echelons to the requirements of higher rank. The breakdown of discipline based on domination, the weakening of the strict seniority system, and the shift away from a pyramidal hierarchy leave no alternative. For future generals and admirals, the gaps between heroic leadership and

military management becomes smaller as administrative pressures increase at the lower levels. Ultimately, under the new skill structure, the struggle between the combat type officer and the military manager gives way to a fusion of roles. The crucial difference becomes that between those officers whose capacities and experiences limit them to management of small tactical units, and those who are able to manage large and complex organizations."²²

MIL 005

MILITARY TECHNOCRAT

MIL 006

RISE OF MILITARY TECHNICIANS

"Emerging tensions within the military profession may well divide those leaders with broad managerial orientation from the new military scientists who are concerned with the technical development of weapons system. Many competent officers in the military establishment are now following scientific careers. Their number is growing, their prestige is rising, and their position in the hierarchy is assured. These officers have a narrower definition of their task and role than do the military managers."²³

MIL 007

THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY

"Neither heroic leaders nor military managers perform as military engineers or technologists. As early as the nineteenth century technologists had important functions in the American military establishment. Since the turn of the

century technological military developments have become so comprehensive that one can speak of an organizational revolution in industrial production. With the introduction of nuclear weapons and missiles, the military seem to have been almost converted into a giant engineering establishment. But in actuality, the military establishment requires a balance between the three roles of heroic leader, military manager, and military technologist, a balance which varies at each level in the hierarchy of authority. Technical specialists can develop into men who hold crucial leadership roles, but this requires modification of their skills and outlook. As the military establishment becomes progressively dependent on more complex technology, the importance of the military manager increases. He does not displace the heroic leader, but he undermines the long-standing traditionalism of the military establishment, and weakens its opposition to technological innovation. With the growth of the military manager, technological innovation becomes routinized."²⁴

MIL 008

CODE OF HONOR

"The military forces of the United States had their origins in a revolutionary political movement - in an anti-colonial struggle. Yet their code of honor derives from the aristocratic forms against which they struggled. Forms of officership and honor were transferred, if only because key officers in the Revolutionary forces had had direct contact

with British military institutions, and there were no other directly available models. At least four basic elements operated in the code derived from British aristocratic institutions, although these elements had to be adapted and modified to fit American conditions. Military honor meant, first, officers were gentlemen; second, fealty to the military commander was personal; third, officers were members of a cohesive brotherhood which claimed the right to extensive self-regulation and fourth, officers fought for the preservation and enhancement of traditional glory.

Under feudalism, officers were gentlemen, not only because they were concerned with the rules of chivalry. They hoped to keep the growing destructiveness of warfare in bounds, so that the pursuit of military honor would not become too costly and prohibitive. Personal fealty to immediate noble commanders, or to a royal head, was an expression of the personalized forms of authority that operated among the feudal nobility. Since impersonal bureaucracy had yet to take form, their oath of allegiance was to a person rather than to an office. The aristocratic officer corps was based on a sense of brotherhood and membership in a self-regulating fraternity. Alfred Vagts in the History of Militarism, documents and analyzes the jealous group solidarity of the noblemen which helped make the officers castes of European armies self-governing bodies, subject to their own traditions, dictates, and patterns of honor. The duel was the most dramatic index of the power of

honor in solidifying the sense of brotherhood among aristocratic officers. By the time of the American Revolution, the aristocratic officer cadre was being systematically enlisted in the enhancement of national, rather than feudal objectives. Nevertheless, the officer fought for glory as much as for concrete political objectives. He was both aware of the military history of his lineage and concerned with the beauty of his military uniform."²⁵

MIL 009 INITIATIVE IN THE MILITARY

"The sheer wight of military organization insures that most soldiers and officers will not resist minimum compliance; indeed, they have no alternative. But whether they will demonstrate initiative and determination depends upon the managerial and organizational skill of the military profession."²⁶

MIL 010 GENTLEMANLY CONDUCT²⁷

MIL 011 PERSONAL FEALTY²⁸

MIL 012 BROTHERHOOD²⁹

MIL 013 PURSUIT OF GLORY³⁰

MIL 014 MILITARY HONOR

"Military honor is both a means and an end. The code of honor specifies how an officer ought to behave, but to be

'honorable' is an objective to be achieved in its own right. When military honor is effective, its coercive power is considerable, since it persistently points to a single overriding objective: The professional soldier always fights."³¹

MIL 015

MILITARY SOCIAL ORIGINS

"... on the basis of social origins alone, the military elite has had a distinctive character beyond the impact of professional training. The military elite has been drawn from an old-family, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant, rural, upper middleclass professional background. This social setting has operated as the equivalent of the European aristocracy in supplying the cadre of military leaders. Until the outbreak of World War II, these social factors lay at the root of the conservative political beliefs held by the American military. They helped to maintain the heroic fighter tradition in the face of growing technological and managerial pressures. But analysis of the ideology of the military elite will demonstrate that, in the absence of an effective feudal tradition, there were few barriers to the development of a flexible attitude toward social and political change, as compared with European counterparts. However, these social origins clearly imply that the development of a cosmopolitan outlook would be slow and would require considerable effort.

As in the case of Europe, because of the increase in the size of the military establishment and the need for trained

specialists, social patterns of recruitment have been transformed. The trend has been in the direction of greater and greater representativeness, but a strong emphasis on second - and third - generation, native-born, nonindustrial background still persists. There has been very little self-perpetuating of professional military elite in the United States because alternative avenues of social advancement have been so great that the sons of the military have sought a wider range of occupations than have their German counterparts, for example. The recruitment into the officer corps since the end of World War II seems, on the other hand, to involve a much greater reliance on the sons of professional soldiers, and, on the other hand, the opening of greater opportunity for the sons of the lower middle and working classes.

Some increase in self-recruitment is inevitable in a society where commercial, rather than public service, values predominate. Only by reaching further down in the social pyramid to search for talent will the military establishment find new sources of officers interested in the advantages of a military career and attracted by public service. Yet more so in the past than in the present, those who have been recruited into the elite have been strikingly homogeneous as compared with other elite groups."³²

MIL 017

MAXIM 58 NAPOLEON

"The first quality of a soldier is the ability to support fatigue and privations; valor is only secondary. Poverty, privation and misery are the school of the good soldier."³³

MIL 018

MAXIM 65 NAPOLEON

"If a commander seeks wisdom in debates and conferences, he will arrive at the result which in all ages has followed such a course, namely, by making the worst decision, which almost always in war is the most pusillanimous, or if you wish, the most prudent. True wisdom in a general means energy."³⁴

MIL 019

THE MILITARY ETHIC

"The military ethic emphasizes the permanence, irrationality, weakness, and evil in human nature. It stresses the supremacy of society over the individual and the importance of order, hierarchy, and division of function. It stresses the continuity and value of history. It accepts the nation state as the highest form of political organization and recognizes the continuing likelihood of wars among nation states. It emphasizes the importance of power in international relations and warns of the dangers to state security. It holds that the security of the state depends upon the creation and maintenance of strong military forces. It urges the limitation of state action to the direct interests of the state,

the restriction of extensive commitments, and the undesirability of bellicose or adventurous policies. It holds that war is the instrument of politics, that the military are the servants of the statesman, and that civilian control is essential to military professionalism. It exalts obedience as the highest virtue of military men. The military ethic is thus pessimistic, collectivist, historically inclined, power-oriented, nationalistic, militaristic, pacifist, and instrumentalist in its view of the military profession. It is, in brief, realistic and conservative."³⁵

MIL 020

PREJUDICE IN WARTIME

"When an enemy threatens all or nearly all of our positive values we stiffen our resistance and exaggerate the merits of our cause. We feel - and this is an instance of overgeneralization - that we are wholly right. (If we did not believe this we could not marshall all our energies for our defense.) And if we are wholly right then the enemy must be wholly wrong. Since he is wholly wrong, we should not hesitate to exterminate him."³⁶

MIL 021

CORPORATENESS³⁷

MIL 022

POLITICAL POWER

The military profession is more than an occupation. It is a complete style of life. The officer is a member of a community whose claims over his daily existence extend well beyond his official duties. In fact, any profession which performs a crucial "life and death" task, such as medicine, the ministry, or the police, develops such claims. The deadly mission of warfare has required that the officer be prepared at short notice to abandon his routine and personal commitments. This is obvious and commonplace. However, somewhat less explicit is the fact that any profession which is continually preoccupied with the threat of danger requires a strong sense of solidarity if it is to operate effectively. Detailed regulation of the military style of life is expected to enhance group cohesion, professional loyalty, and maintain the martial spirit. In good measure, military indoctrination has been effective because of the relatively closed community environment in which the military have lived. In turn, the style of life of the military community contributes to the self-consciousness and self-assurance of the military elite.

Traditionally, the military community has been more sharply segregated from civilian life in the United States than in the major nations of Western Europe. This social isolation has helped the military profession to maintain its distinctive characteristics and values. The influence of

aristocratic traditions was weak; the commercial and capitalist ethic, which discounted the virtues of the professional soldier, was powerful."³⁸

MIL 024

FREEDOM OF ACTION

"It is common to point out that military organization is rigidly stratified and authoritarian because of the necessities of command and the possibilities of war. The management of war is a serious and deadly business. It is therefore asserted that effective military command permits little tolerance for informal administration. Moreover, because military routines tend to be highly standardized, it is assumed that promotion is in good measure linked to compliance with existing procedures. These characteristics are found in civilian bureaucracies, but supposedly not to the same extent and rigidity. Once an individual has entered the military establishment, he has embarked on a career within a single comprehensive institution. Short of withdrawal, he thereby loses the 'freedom of action' that is associated with occupational change in civilian life."³⁹

MIL 025

FUNDAMENTAL MILITARY CONCEPTS

MIL 026

THE CLASSICAL PRINCIPLES OF WAR

"The 'Principles of War' have been distilled from the history and experience of warfare over a period of 2500 years. It is possible that they may have been overdistilled. In

number, they vary, as determined by the mental processes of the writer and his method of treatment. Sun-Tzu, a very successful Chinese General, enunciated thirteen principles in 500 B.C. Napoleon's maxims finally numbered 15. Clausewitz is satisfied with but seven. Nelson employed ten tactical principles. The most usual list to be found is about as follows:

The Objective
Simplicity
Cooperation
The Offensive
Maneuver
Mass
Economy of Force
Surprise
Security

Almost without exception, all authors of lists of principles claim these to be immutable."⁴⁰

"What the principles mean to the student or practitioner of the art of war is determined by several considerations. Each person who uses them will, in the end, interpret and define them in the light of his own real or vicarious experience. The principles will mean the most to him who has both knowledge and experience. They are most dangerous in the hands of the ignorant and the unreflective. Rather than a ritual or cult, they seem to resemble an index, or one of the indexes, that can be used to file away one's knowledge of the military art. When adequately defined and developed, they

can also be used as one's military conscience, the tenets of which are not to be violated with impunity. They should not be used negatively, however, to dampen and restrain, but instead to stimulate and inspire thinking."⁴¹

It is of interest that the U. S. Navy did not officially accept, publish or refer to the Principles of War prior to 1954. As such, it was the only major military service, American or foreign, that did not accept them. The reason seems to have been that they are questionable as truly fundamental principles. The reason they were included in Naval Warfare Publication 10 in 1954 may well have been in recognition of the fact that the Navy was working even more closely with other services and nations that used the Principles.⁴²

MIL 027	<u>THE MILITARY STAFF</u>
MIL 028	<u>STRATEGY</u> ⁴³
MIL 029	<u>TACTICS</u> ⁴⁴
MIL 030	<u>LOGISTICS</u> ⁴⁵
MIL 031	<u>RANK HIERARCHY</u>
MIL 032	<u>MILITARY THEORY</u>
MIL 033	<u>CHANGING MILITARY AUTHORITY</u>

"There has been a change in the basis of authority and discipline in the military establishment, a shift from authoritarian domination to greater reliance on manipulation,

persuasion and group consensus. The organizational revolution which pervades contemporary society, and which implies management by means of persuasion, explanation and expertise, is also to be found in the military."⁴⁶

MIL 034 AUTHORITARIANISM

MIL 035 MANAGEMENT OF VIOLENCE

"It must be remembered that the peculiar skill of the officer is the management of violence not the act of violence itself."⁴⁷

MIL 036 RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

MIL 037 TECHNOLOGY

MIL 038 ORAL BRIEFINGS

"The development of 'oral briefing' as a part of the decision-making process is military in origin. Despite the military profession's concern with authoritative communications, it has gone far in institutionalizing informal oral briefings. At these informal meetings decisions are arrived at by elaborate compromise, and therefore, the skill of oral presentation is crucial. The oral briefing is a response to the speed with which events transpire. It is also a reflection of the fact that the official flow of upward communication is just as inadequate in the military as in other bureaucracies. The oral briefing is a rapid and flexible device

for upward communication, which permits an ... informal exchange of information. Since briefings are attended by many officials, they serve to bypass any single person who might block the upward flow of information. The presence of younger staff officers at the important briefings guarantees that coordination between staff officers can take place on an informal level, regardless of the official position of the nominally responsible officer."⁴⁸

MIL 039	<u>HUMAN GOALS</u>
MIL 040	<u>MILITARY TRAITS</u>
MIL 041	<u>EXPERTISE</u>
MIL 042	<u>LOYALTY</u>
MIL 043	<u>HONESTY</u>
MIL 044	<u>RELIABILITY</u>
MIL 045	<u>COURAGE (PHYSICAL AND MORAL)</u>
MIL 046	<u>JUDGMENT</u>
MIL 047	<u>MILITARY DECISIONS</u>

"The ability of a naval commander to make consistently sound military decisions is the result of a combination of attributes. The natural talent of the individual, his temperament, his reactions in emergencies, his courage, and

his professional knowledge all contribute to his proficiency and to the accuracy of his judgment. We have spent years training our officers to think clearly and for themselves to the end that when entrusted with the responsibility of making decisions in time of war they would be fully qualified. One of the mental processes that has become almost a daily responsibility for all those in command is that of calculating the risks involved in a given course of action. That may mean the risks attendant upon disposition of forces, such as had to be taken before the Battle of Midway, when an erroneous evaluation might have left us in a most unfavorable strategic position; the risks of losses in contemplated engagements, such as the Battle of Guadalcanal on 13-14-15 November 1942; the risks of success or failure dependent upon correct evaluation of political conditions, of which the North African landings are an example, and a host of others.

Calculating risks does not mean taking a gamble. It is more than figuring the odds. It is not reducible to a formula. It is the analysis of all factors which collectively indicate whether or not the consequences to ourselves will be more than compensated for by the damage to the enemy or interference with his plans. Correct calculation of risks, by orderly reasoning, is the responsibility of every naval officer who participates in combat, and many who do not."⁴⁹

MIL 048

ONLY JUDGMENT

People have a tendency to lend more weight to someone's words when they say or imply "In my judgment . . ." The tendency to do so is probably prompted by the mutual courtesy of respecting the fact that they are uttering the best effort that their total knowledge and experiences can bring to bear. Such mutual respect is undoubtedly good and should be extended to everyone, even fools. But, the judgment of a fool is not any more valuable because it is his best effort. The value of someone's judgment lies in the quality of what he said, not in the fact that he said it.

MIL 049

FIRMNESS

MIL 050

FAIRNESS

MIL 051

RESOURCEFULNESS

MIL 052

IMPROVISATION

"It must not be overlooked that most important developments have been the result of sheer improvisation during actual hostilities. More often than not the outbreak of war finds the available technology inadequate, and improvisation becomes the order of the day."⁵⁰

MIL 053

IMAGINATION

"I had a very competent staff as commander - but I was appalled by the lack of imagination or intuition until I came on the bridge I looked for a reason and came to the conclusion that imagination and intuition require 'leisure' in which to think - the thinking to invariably include some difficult and deep soul-searching for the objective. As one goes to lower echelons, one finds not only less background but less of this 'leisure.' From this conclusion I formed the opinion that the High Commander owes it to himself and the Navy to make such 'leisure' by refraining from 'pedestrian' detail and by the use of more guts than usually displayed in delegating his authority.

I work on the theory that no man can do a job by himself and furthermore, that no one has a monopoly on brains. To this end I formed a very useful tool. I would give a problem for study to each member of the staff including the lowest ensign. Then I would gather them all together and have a free-for-all 'brainstorming.' I was disappointed in the calibre of their thinking, which was for the most part mundane and conventional.

... But now and then a small gem would fall on the green baize. These 'brainstormings' had a very salutary effect in creating a team, in motivating the staff, in dragging the horse to water and in getting the youngsters of our future

Navy out of their paper mills into the area of trying to think.

As with you, the most difficult task I ever had is in teaching the implications of the word 'objective.' Most minds stop when they reach the word 'ambition.' In practice, I was the only one who could envision the objective ..."57

MIL 055	<u>PERSISTENCE</u>
MIL 056	<u>PREPAREDNESS</u>
MIL 057	<u>FAITH</u>
MIL 058	<u>MODESTY</u>
MIL 059	<u>SELF-CONFIDENCE</u>
MIL 060	<u>DECISIVENESS</u>
MIL 061	<u>ENDURANCE</u>
MIL 062	<u>INITIATIVE</u>
MIL 063	<u>ENTHUSIASM</u>
MIL 064	<u>INTEGRITY</u>
MIL 065	<u>TACT</u>
MIL 066	<u>UNSELFISHNESS</u>
MIL 067	<u>SENSE OF HUMOR</u>

"Prescribed careers performed with high competence lead to entrance into the professional elite, the highest point in the military hierarchy at which technical and routinized functions are performed. By contrast, entrance into the smaller group - the elite nucleus - where innovating perspectives, discretionary responsibility, and political skills are required, is assigned to persons with unconventional and adaptive careers.

This hypothesis is probably applicable to all organizations, for top leadership, especially in a crisis, is seldom reserved for those who take no risks. But among the military the belief in a prescribed career is particularly strong. An unconventional career, within limits, can imply a predisposition toward innovation or, at least, implies that the officer has undergone experiences which have enabled him to acquire new perspectives, new skills, and a broader outlook than is afforded by a routine career. Unconventional or unusual careers, however, must be developed within the framework of existing institutions, since officers who express too openly their desire to innovate or to criticize are not likely to survive."⁵²

Obedience is the "supreme military virtue." It is the essential ingredient in classic military organization. There could not be a military profession without it.

Under the Constitution, the military serves the state and receives its direction from the government through the Commander-in-Chief. From this position at the top, all orders and authority come. Accordingly, the military is structured into a hierarchy that allows each level to command obedience from all levels lower in order to perform as required.

Military men are judged on their ability to obey. For every man in service, obedience means the instant, unquestioning, loyal, efficient carrying out of all orders, given by an authorized senior.

The uniqueness of the military and its combat mission dictate the need for strict obedience. Consider subordinates under such circumstances given the order to charge. If each man was then permitted to analyze the situation to decide whether he wanted to obey or not, the unit could not function effectively in completing its mission. Put another way, if a commander is charged with accomplishing a mission, he must be given forces who will carry out his orders. Otherwise, he is not in command, he is merely suggesting.

In the military hierarchy, as authority and responsibility are greater the higher up the position, so too is the amount of information available greater. An order from a knowledgeable

superior may seem idiotic to a subordinate without the information. But he will be judged by his obedience, not by the rightness or wrongness of the order.

Military leaders have always known that men commit themselves better when they know why they must. When they can, and when they see that it should be provided, superiors should give the reason for an order. Subordinates may at times become used to knowing why, but, if an order is given without a reason, instant obedience without asking for a reason is still necessary for the military unit to function reliably.⁵⁴

MIL 073

HONOR

"Military honor is both a means and an end. The code of honor specifies how an officer ought to behave, but to be 'honorable' is an objective to be achieved in its own right. When military honor is effective, its coercive power is considerable, since it persistently points to a single overriding objective: The professional soldier always fights."⁵⁵

"Undoubtedly, military honor serves a variety of personal and social motives. For some it is a rationalization for inertia; it permits others to operate somewhat beyond their personal capacities. However, the military profession is no different from other professions in that its performance is the result of the achievements of a small fraction of men. If the United States had better military leaders than it deserved in World War II, in view of its lack of interest and

and neglect of its military institution, military honor was responsible to a considerable degree."⁵⁶

"Honor is supposed to be binding on the entire military profession. It is supposed to insure the unique characteristics of the officer, and to guarantee his career commitment. Yet, few military leaders are blind to the progressive inability of honor to resolve the strains within the profession. They are concerned that junior officers do not remain in the service long enough to assimilate the code. The broadening of the basis of social recruitment to include strata without service traditions, and the increased careerist motives of officer candidates, further weaken the importance of honor. The concept of military honor itself is subject to intense pressure by the values of contemporary society, and the services themselves engage in searching self-criticism over the 'crisis'"⁵⁷

MIL 074

DUTY

MIL 075

PATRIOTISM (NATIONALISM)

MIL 076

MILITARY TECHNOLOGICAL CONSERVATISM

" ... decision making in the military establishment is no longer characterized by traditional thinking about technological requirements. The realistic assessment of needs and prospects has become as widely routinized and automatic as it is in civilian industry. The procedure of innovation in industry

and in the military converge. Increasing specialization and complexity make necessary the replacement of individual decisions by staff work and group research, with the result that extensive organizations are created whose vested interests press for continuous innovation.

However, routine, step-by-step innovation is not necessarily rational and effective. The breakdown of traditional thinking has more often than not led to trend thinking, to a concern with gradually perfecting technical instruments, rather than the strategic re-evaluation of weapons systems. This orientation in itself is a form, though a modified one, of technological conservatism. Revolutionary developments are still likely to come from "outsiders."⁵⁸

"Innovation is the heart of progress and is always resisted by those who instinctively conform to routine. On the other hand, those who continually seek innovation tend to confuse and obstruct the operation of the day-to-day routines of a bureaucracy. Ideally, each area or level of an organization requires a different balance of conformity and nonconformity in its personnel, and each selection board should have a concept of such balance as it goes about its work of seeking men for promotion."⁵⁹

"The dependence of the military on the status quo - whether the status quo is industrial capitalism or communism - reinforces traditionalism. Traditional attitudes are institutionalized by the requirements of military organization and planning. When war-making becomes more technical, the military establishment requires years of preparation and advance thinking. Sudden developments are resisted as disruptive, for it takes years to translate ideas into weapons systems."⁶⁰

". . . there is a subtle and pervasive aspect of military behavior which has continued to reinforce traditionalism, even as the military professional developed and became more managerial after the termination of the Spanish-American War. To prepare for war and to make war is to face continuous uncertainty, fraught with grave consequences. The uncertainties of warfare are so great that the most elaborate peacetime planning and the most realistic exercises are at best weak indicators of emerging imponderables. Dogmatic doctrine is a typical organizational reflex action to future uncertainties. What has happened in the past becomes a powerful precedent for future engagements. Military leaders who have successfully experienced combat develop prestige and reputations which can checkmate the advice of the scientist and the technologist."⁶¹

"When military leaders are not defending traditions, they are often seeking to establish traditions."⁶²

MIL 078

ORDER

MIL 079

UNIFORMITY

MIL 080

DISCIPLINE

"Rigid military discipline preserves an army in times of misfortune, which comes to all Armies."⁶³

Discipline - conformance with regulations, whatever the situation.⁶⁴

"Discipline can be effective only if the ideal patterns are buttressed by strong sentiments which entail devotion to one's duty, a keen sense of the limitation of one's authority, and competence and methodical performance of routine activities.

. . . . at the moment, it suffices to observe that in order to ensure discipline (the necessary reliability of response), these sentiments are often more intense than is technically necessary. There is a margin of safety, so to speak, in the pressure exerted by these sentiments upon the bureaucrat to perform to his patterned obligations But this very emphasis leads to a transference of the sentiments from the aims of the organization onto the particular details of behavior required by the rules. Adherence to the rules, originally conceived as a means, becomes transformed into an end-in-itself"⁶⁵

"The hypothesis concerning the shift in organizational authority, however, is designed to elucidate the realities of military command, since these realities condition the political behavior of the military elite. It is true that at a large segment of the military establishment resembles a civilian bureaucracy insofar as it deals with the problems of research, development, and logistics. Yet, this hypothesis should apply even in areas of the military establishment which are primarily concerned with combat or the maintenance of combat readiness. In fact, the central concern of commanders is no longer the enforcement of rigid discipline, but rather the maintenance of high levels of initiative and morale.

It is in this crucial respect that the military establishment has undergone a slow and continuing change. The technical character of modern warfare requires highly skilled and highly motivated soldiers. In any complex military team an important element of power resides in each member who must make a technical contribution to the success of the undertaking. Therefore, the more mechanized the military formation, the greater the reliance on the team concept of organization."⁶⁶

"The shift from domination to manipulation and persuasion involve the relative balance of negative sanctions versus positive incentives. Domination is defined as issuing orders without explaining the goals sought or the purposes involved. This was in the spirit of the charge of the British Light Brigade. It came to an end only after the battles of the

Somme and Paaschendale, when Allied civilian leadership began to see the pyrrhic victory such actions would bring. Manipulation implies ordering and influencing human behavior by emphasizing group goals and by using indirect techniques of control. While the terms manipulation and persuasion have come to be thought of as morally reprehensible, they describe the efforts of organizational management when orders and commands are issued and the reasons for them are given. It is impossible to analyze modern bureaucratic institutions without reference to a concept such as manipulation or persuasion, or some more socially acceptable equivalent. The objective of the effective military manager is not to eliminate differences in rank and authority. Instead, he seeks to maximize participation in implementing decisions at all levels by taking into consideration the technical skills and interpersonal needs of all concerned."⁶⁷

"The technology of warfare is so complex that the coordination of a complex group of specialists cannot be guaranteed simply by authoritarian discipline. Members of a military group recognize their greater mutual dependence on the technical proficiency of their team members, rather than on the formal authority structure."⁶⁸

"The persistence of outmoded forms of discipline is sometimes an expression of ideological beliefs among segments of the military elite. In the United States, and elsewhere, the military elite hold a conservative political orientation; as

a result, they are often alarmed at and misrepresent the new requirements of military authority. Some see these requirements as potentially undermining the entire basis of authority and coordination, and as potential barriers to decisions on the strategic level. They fail to see how manipulative techniques can supply the basis for developing the necessary strong sub-leadership required to operate effectively within a well-managed and closely supervised larger military formation. In fact, they fail to see that control of rank and file leadership, based on positive group cohesion, is essential to maintain both decentralized initiative and operational control over widely dispersed military formations.

It is not necessary to assume that indirect social control implies an inability to arrive at strategic or tactical decisions. On the contrary, staff work in support of the strategic commander has traditionally assumed a range of interplay before the responsible authority arrives at a decision. The contemporary requirements of command have pushed this form of decision-making down to the lowest operational units, and it is understandable that such a trend is resisted."⁶⁹

"Most military personnel, especially those at the middle and higher levels, are engaged in administrative and logistical operations; yet, the organizational behavior of the military is not fixed by these operations. Military leadership, if it is to be effective, must strive to imprint the organizational format of combat units on the entire military

organization. To understand the logic of military authority is to understand the practices of combat commanders, even though they constitute a minority. In theory, military operations are best served by a hierarchial organization which can enforce coordination of its complex units. In practice, the maintenance of initiative in combat has become a requirement of more critical importance than is the rigid enforcement of discipline."⁷⁰

"The tactical officer no longer co-responds to the image of the rasping-voiced cavalry officer, shouting orders to men whom he assumed to be ignorant. Rather, in all three services, he is a junior executive, confronted with the task of coordinating specialists and demonstrating by example that he is competent to lead in battle. When military discipline was based on domination, officers had to demonstrate that they were different from the men they commanded. Today, leaders must continuously demonstrate their competence and technical ability, in order that they may command without resort to arbitrary and ultimate sanctions. The slogan in the old armed forces was 'Salute the bars, not the man,' since authority was formal. But contemporary military roles depend on the qualities of the men who occupy professional positions."⁷¹

"A return to an organization form based on domination is impossible. Given the cultural traits of American society, any massive reintroduction of old-fashioned repressive

military discipline would mean that the officer corps would run the risk of losing its most creative intellects, while the non-commissioned ranks would attract mainly those who are unsuccessful in civilian life. Any widespread and conscious effort to reimpose authoritarian discipline is tempered by the political pressures available to drafters and reservists."⁷²

MIL 081

HISTORY

MIL 082

LEADERSHIP

MIL 083

ACHIEVEMENT

MIL 084

MORALE

MIL 085

MILITARY SELF-IMAGE

"The strain on military honor has had a negative impact on the self-esteem of military leaders. Every profession assigns to itself a higher status than outsiders would be willing to concede, and every leadership group has a self-image which fails to correspond to the image the public holds. Yet, the "crisis" in the military profession is as much a crisis in self-esteem and self-image as it is a crisis in organization and purpose. Honor, which was a fundamental value of the aristocratic officer, and is a most important dimension of self-image among officers in the United States military today, has been strained.

In a democratic society it is highly inappropriate for honor to be the sole or even the dominant, value of the professional military cadre. Honor comes to be combined with and dependent upon public prestige and popular recognition. The military must be afforded sufficient prestige and respect to insure a sense of self-esteem. But the rank and file professionals, and even many members of the elite are not certain that this is evidenced in the attitudes of non-military society. Whether, in fact, the officer behaves as a heroic fighter or as a military manager, the anomalous position of the military professional in American social structure has literally deprived him of a consistent self-image. The simple-minded marine colonel who boasts that his profession is to kill is an anachronism. Even the most assault-minded officer does not consider himself a gunman; he wants to be esteemed for his patriotism, public service and judgment."⁷³

MIL 086

LEADERSHIP

MIL 087

VALUE OF LEADERSHIP⁷⁴

MIL 088

SOURCES OF LEADERSHIP

MIL 089

LEADERSHIP STYLES

MIL 090

MILITARY IMAGES

"To infuse a sense of urgency and solidarity, military managers seek to invoke a combat philosophy and to strike an

aggressive posture. At one time combat ribbons and insignia were designated for this purpose, but they have had a tendency to depreciate in value."⁷⁵

MIL 091

LEADERS AS PROBLEM SOLVERS

Leaders are people who solve problems for others and therefore have followers.

MIL 092

LAO-TZU ON LEADERS

"When the best leader's work is done the people say, 'We did it ourselves!'"⁷⁶

MIL 093

MILITARY WORKING HOURS

"Those who occupy command and combat positions in military units which are on the alert are subject to continuous and extreme tension and live a highly intense life. Those in key positions are under all the pressures of 'crash programs' and 'administrative flaps.' The system of rotation in assignment spreads these tasks, but the up-and-coming officer can no longer afford to behave like a 'gentlemen.' Being an aspiring military manager means living like his civilian counterpart; it means taking work home at night (or rather going back to the office in the evening because classified documents must be left in the office), or working toward continuous self-improvement through reading and correspondence courses. Of course, many members of the officer corps are more or less

detached about about their careers, and continue to limit themselves to an 8:00 A.M. to 4:00 P.M. routine, but even they must now be careful not to give the impression of underemployment."⁷⁷

MIL 094 MILITARY JUSTICE

MIL 095 ORIGINS OF UCMJ

MIL 096 SOURCES OF AUTHORITY

MIL 097 ENLISTED MEN

MIL 098 HUMAN RELATIONS PERSPECTIVE

"The enlisted man is extremely stupid, but is cunning and sly and bears considerable watching."⁷⁸

MIL 099 CONCERN WITH MILITARY FAMILIES

"Both officers and their wives complain of the irrationality and pressure of training schedules, but their criticism reflects a deeper concern with whether a military career is 'worth while.' Discontent is a reflection of a lack of self-esteem. It is a reflection of the ambiguity of the military career in a free enterprise society. In the past, the strains were less disruptive because the military family had a style of life which had its own internal consistency.

Very like the professional social worker, military authority has sought to 'assist the family to adjust to the military

community. In the face of increased family disruption and discontent, the military community has been literally converted into an advance form of the welfare and social service state In any event, in the military community it is assumed that the solution of family problems has become essential for professional solidarity. Since the military profession requires high levels of solidarity, this assumption is probably warranted."⁷⁹

MIL 100 NEW INGREDIENTS OF MILITARY MORALE

"Popular demand for equality of treatment grows with industrialization. As the standard of living rises, tolerance for the discomforts of military life decreases. The skepticism of urban life carries over into the military to a greater degree than in previous generations, so that men will no longer act blindly, but will demand some sort of explanation from their commanders. Social relations, personal leadership, material benefits, ideological indoctrination, and the justice and meaningfulness of war aims are now all component parts of military morale."⁸⁰

MIL 101 NAVAL CUSTOMS, TRADITIONS AND SYMBOLS

MIL 102 PURPOSE

MIL 103 ORIGINS

MIL 104 SALUTING⁸¹

MIL 105

THE SALUTE

" . . . one gets the impression that the salute has been selected as a symbol of opposition to civilianizing trends, and is therefore maintained with determination. While it has become almost automatic, and in a sense peripheral to consciousness, it is still laden with powerful meaning."⁸²

MIL 106 UNIFORMS⁸³

MIL 107 DRILL⁸⁴

MIL 108 INSIGNIA⁸⁵

MIL 109 RANKS⁸⁶

MIL 110 TAPS⁸⁷

MIL 111 SIR⁸⁸

MIL 112 GROOMING

MIL 113 SMARTNESS

MIL 114 UNIFORMITY

MIL 115 BLUEJACKET⁸⁹

MIL 116 CHIT⁹⁰

MIL 117 FLEUR-DE-LIS⁹¹

MIL 118 ENSIGN⁹²

MIL 119	<u>SON OF A GUN</u> ⁹³
MIL 120	<u>LIMEY</u> ⁹⁴
MIL 121	<u>MASTER-AT-ARMS</u> ⁹⁵
MIL 122	<u>SHIPPING OVER</u> ⁹⁶
MIL 123	<u>SHOW A LEG</u> ⁹⁷
MIL 124	<u>DRAWING A DEAD HORSE</u> ⁹⁸
MIL 125	<u>FIDDLER'S GREEN</u> ⁹⁹
MIL 126	<u>KHAKI</u> ¹⁰⁰
MIL 127	<u>BEARDS, MOUSTACHES AND HAIR</u>
MIL 128	<u>COLORS</u> ¹⁰¹
MIL 129	<u>FOLDING THE FLAG INTO A "COCKED HAT"</u> ¹⁰²
MIL 130	<u>TATOO</u> ¹⁰³
MIL 131	<u>LIEUTENANT</u> ¹⁰⁴
MIL 132	<u>SCHRAPNEL</u> ¹⁰⁵
MIL 133	<u>AYE AYE</u> ¹⁰⁶
MIL 134	<u>U.S. MARINE CORPS</u>
MIL 135	<u>TUN'S TAVERN</u>

MIL 136

MARMALUKE SWORD

MIL 137

RED STRIPE

MIL 138

CAP CROSS

MIL 139

RITUALISM IN THE MILITARY

"The strains of military life do lead to the perpetuation of extensive ritualism, and to outbursts of organizational rigidity which remain baffling to the civilian outsider. Anachronistic survivals are practiced alongside highly effective procedures of military management. Much of the ritualism of the military profession - the constant minute, and repeated inspection of person and property - are devices which are found in any occupation where the risks of personal danger are great. Ritualism is in part a defense against anxiety, but it is also a device for wedding tradition to innovation."¹⁰⁷

MIL 140

CEREMONIALISM IN THE MILITARY

"Nostalgia for the past also expresses itself in ceremonialism. The evidence and opportunities for increased ceremonialism are ample - ranging from the reintroduction of the dress sword for naval officers to more close order parades. Ceremonialism serves a purpose when it contributes to a sense of self-esteem and organizational solidarity. But at some point it becomes a substitute for problem-solving."¹⁰⁸

"Parallel to the detailed operating procedures of the military establishment are the elaborate rules of etiquette and ceremony which govern personal relations. In both cases there is, of course, a gap between prescribed rules and actual practice, but in both cases the prescribed rules supply a frame for molding social behavior. The military are energetic socializers, and they work hard at their ceremonial obligations. No other occupation, with the exception of professional diplomacy, is so concerned with courtesy and protocol. "Old fashioned" politeness and formal manners survive, although they have been adapted to the realities of modern organizational life.

Men who must work and live in the closest physical proximity become concerned with their comrades' personal habits. The concepts of honor and of martial spirit are grounded in rituals of collegueship. These rituals are but one of the devices of a profession which must control its anxiety due to its concern with death. The fact that these specialists in violence are so concerned with etiquette is a paradox, explainable only in that the elaborate forms of personal intercourse are designed to hide harsh realities, as well as boredom from endless routine. The stability of the military profession cannot be understood without reference to the importance of protocol. The self-conception that the military profession

is "special," implanted in cadets by the service academies, is kept alive by these forms of etiquette and ceremony. If the military profession is unique because of its focus on violence, protocol must operate to reinforce professional self-concepts.

Since each officer is a member of a single organization, all contacts - official and social - are likely to repeat themselves. Without deliberate purpose, no officer can afford to offend, or even reject contacts with other officers, especially those of equal or higher rank. Intimate contacts and wide friendships with one's colleagues are the building blocks of a successful career in any profession. But in the military the potential circle of contacts is immense, and the rules of social intercourse are well defined. The officer and his wife must have the ability to go far enough without going too far. One observer has commented, "A man should be able to tell a good story, but he should not be a notorious braggart; a man should be able to drink a lot, but he should not be an alcoholic; it is good to be well educated, but not to show off your education."

The civilian image of the military man as a loud mouth who uses foul language is outmoded, especially in regard to the potential member of the military elite. It may still be appropriate to swear - in fact, necessary - but the officer must know when it is not permissible. Most members of the military elite, including those with highly atypical careers, seem always to function within the framework of military

protocol. In fact, many of them conform closely to the social code in order to achieve greater professional freedom."¹⁰⁹

"In all three services etiquette and ceremony are organized around two basic themes. First, the code is designed to fuse the official and the private sphere, since such fusion is a basic feature of professional military life. In fusing the officer's official and private roles, obviously and explicitly, the military social code gives higher priority to the official role. Simultaneously, official contacts with fellow officers and with outsiders are not limited merely to the professional task at hand, but tend to be transformed into personal intercourse. It is as though all professional contacts in civilian life had to be enlarged into social contacts. When one is stationed aboard ship, or at an isolated military post, there is no alternative but the code is applied throughout the military establishment. In specific detail, protocol covers the required courtesy to be extended between members of the military elite, as well as to outside political and foreign "dignitaries." The system extends all the way down the hierarchy.

Second, the code is designed to instruct the officer and his wife in the appropriate behavior for every phase of the life cycle, from engagement to burial. Custom guides the use of swords at a military marriage, the patterns of visiting, and the ceremonies of retirement, although in the expanded

military establishment only the very top echelon receives the privileges of full protocol. Such rules make available arrangements for avoiding personal embarrassment. But the protocol of social behavior has a deeper significance, for it is designed to prevent the undue display of impulse or emotion.

Some of the forms are carry-overs from old-fashioned 'high society,' after which the military sought to model itself. Other forms seem to be advance models of social life in the modern corporation concerned with the loyalty of its personnel; they are perpetuated, in part, to protect the military from the discomforts and frustrations of continuous residential mobility. To have lived in twenty different posts and stations in the course of a lifetime means to be apart from the rest of society. The web of social relations that military etiquette produces not only binds its members together, but acts as a filter through which the outer world is perceived."¹¹⁰

"The effectiveness of military etiquette and protocol is enhanced because the ceremonial functions of the military are valued by civilians, even in a democratic society. The professional soldier has a double public image. Despite the relatively low prestige that the military profession has for civilians, conspicuous display of the military uniform has its civilian audience. In a world in which rationality and efficiency seem to have triumphed, uniformed officers are important ceremonial appurtenances. Sociability and manners make them effective participants in the nation's diplomatic

life and at overseas missions. The attendance of soldiers and officers are required more and more at public ceremonies and national displays. In recent years they have formed the largest element of the presidential inauguration parade, and are also present at the installation of state governors. The military is aware of the importance of this role and is, in fact, prepared to enhance it. The return of the formal-dress uniform in all services, and the authorization of the dress sword for the naval officer, serve to increase the ceremonial usefulness of the profession."¹¹¹

HISTORY CONCEPTS

H 001

HISTORY

H 002

MILITARY HISTORY

H 003

THE DARK AGES

H 004

THE RISE OF THE MILITARY PROFESSION

H 005

MILITARY BY ASCRIPTION

"Under feudalism, because of a primitive skill structure and a relatively static organization, military leadership and authority could be based on tradition, custom, and, most important of all, on social position. The feudal military establishment had a strongly ascriptive hierarchy. Ascription meant that an individual's position in the military depended on his social characteristics, and not on his personal achievements. Men were born into the officer class, or they were excluded. Seldom could they earn such a position through performance. The transformation of the feudal military establishment into a professional armed force meant that the traditional ascriptive basis of military position and leadership had to become modified toward an increasing reliance on the criteria of individual achievement.

By the turn of the twentieth century, the skill structure of the military professional had undermined the effectiveness of ascribed authority. Yet, in the United States armed forces promotion by strict seniority, on the basis of age and service,

was a keystone in the persistence of an ascriptive hierarchy. As the profession became more achievement-oriented, personnel records began to supplant social pedigree. In the contemporary armed forces belief in merit criteria is as strong as it is in most civilian enterprises and no less difficult to achieve."¹¹²

H 006

MILITARY TRADITIONALISM

H 007

SOCIAL ORIGINS OF THE MILITARY

"Most fundamentally, the professional soldier is conservative, since his social origin is grounded in the history of the post-feudal nobility in Europe and its social equivalents in the United States. His prototype is the Prussian officer corps, so carefully documented by the German historian, Karl Demeter. In the United States before the Civil War the southern 'plantocracy' gave strong aristocratic overtones to the military profession. Interestingly in the origins of the Naval profession, as represented by the British Navy, there was greater reliance on middle- and even lower- class personnel in the officer corps, because men were needed to perform the arduous and skilled tasks of managing a vessel and its crew."¹¹³

H 008

MOTIVES FOR A MILITARY CAREER

"Four motive patterns, singly and in combination, were of consequence for those who rose to the level of general or

admiral by 1950: tradition, or more precisely family and social inheritance; sheer desire for education and social advancement, with or without a career commitment to the military; experience in a military setting; and "boyhood" ambition. The potential officer's career choice was further influenced not only by his feeling that the armed forces had a vital function, but by the fact that the military had offered an adequate and respectable level of personal security in peacetime. Nor should one overlook the intermingling of these motives with a diffuse desire for an active, athletic-type career."¹¹⁴

"While for many persons, and perhaps even for a majority, the military career represented the pursuit of a relatively secure, safe, and promising prospect, more or less similar to other professions, for a substantial minority, at least, the choice of a military career was a strong decision. To speak of a strong career choice means that a person feels that a particular occupation is singularly important to him, since he believes that it will give him the rewards and gratification he wants.

For such persons, the military career had overtones of a 'calling' with a sense of mission. It represented a deliberate rejection of what was believed to be the prosaic and limited horizons of the business world."¹¹⁵

H 009	<u>NAVAL HISTORY</u>
H 010	<u>TABLE NAVAL HISTORY</u>
H 011	<u>LESSONS FROM NAVAL HISTORY</u>
H 012	<u>U.S. NAVAL HISTORY</u> ¹¹⁶
H 013	<u>U.S. NAVAL HISTORY TABLE</u>
H 014	<u>THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY</u>
H 015	<u>IMPORTANT EVENTS IN U.S. NAVAL HISTORY</u> ¹¹⁷
H 016	<u>ORIGINS OF MILITARY CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS</u>
H 017	<u>THE EVOLUTION OF UNIFORMS</u>
H 018	<u>MILITARY IMAGES</u>
H 019	<u>THE COMING OF NEW MILITARY AUTHORITY</u>

"Many civilians still see the military profession as it existed in an earlier phase, when authoritarian domination was the typical mode of behavior. Despite the residues of ritual and ceremony by 1945, members of the military profession who reached the top had demonstrated an ability to operate within the transformed system of military authority, even though they had to go through a painful re-education."¹¹⁸

PSYCHOLOGY CONCEPTS

PSY 001

THE INDIVIDUAL

PSY 002

THE CONCEPT OF SELF

The self can be thought of as the total sum of what an individual believes or perceives is true about himself. It is everything that one distinguishes in himself that makes him a specific person.

Not all psychologists recognize the self, as such, or deal with it in the same way. Nevertheless, it is a concept that seems descriptive of how we feel about our individuality. Some believe self and personality are the same, whereas others think of personality as more the behavioral aspect of the self. As a world of human beings, we cannot deny our physical individuality and this fact tends to make the notion of self a logical and a fundamental one in our thinking.¹

PSY 003

SELF PERMANENCE

"Scarcely anyone ever wants to be anybody else. However, handicapped or unhappy he feels himself, he would not change places with other more fortunate mortals. He grumbles over his misfortunes and wants his lot improved; but it is his lot and his personality that he wants bettered. This attachment to one's own being is basic to human life. I may say that I envy you. But I do not want to be you; I only want to have for myself some of your attributes or possessions. And along with this beloved self go all of the person's basic

memberships. Since he cannot alter his family stock, its traditions, his nationality, or his native language, he does well to accept them."²

PSY 004

EGOTISM AND STATUS

There seems to be every reason why a child, especially in western culture, should come to regard himself as better than other people. (Hobbes and other philosophers have insisted that this is an absolutely universal trait in human nature. ...)

Nature requires that every individual be a self-sufficient biological organism. He must devote his life cycle to maintaining his physical and mental integrity. Thus, in a sense, everything he does has to be self-centered. If he did not live and work for his own maintenance, he would perish - unless someone else assumed the burden. In the process he cannot fail to develop a strong, clamorous sense of his own ego. It is the pivot of his existence. When his sense of integrity and self-direction are interfered with, he has the capacity for rage. He has the capacity, likewise, for aggression, resentment, hate, envy, and other forms of self-righteousness. These self-restorative mechanisms are likely to be called into play whenever the ego-esteem is threatened.

If he has the capacity for anger and hostility, he also has considerable susceptibility to praise and flattery. To have one's virtues acknowledged, and one's self-love thus

vindicated, is to experience status. Such elation has survival value, for it indicates to the person that he is, for the time being at least, secure and successful - not only in his dealings with the physical world, but, what is harder to achieve, in his dealings with the social world where other egos, too, are clamoring for recognition. Egoism in human nature is, then, a sine qua non of existence. Its social manifestation is the need for status."³

PSY 005

PERCEPTION AND THE SENSES

We have five basic senses, sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch. With these senses, we perceive the world. It is important to recognize that our perception of things is not necessarily the actual condition.

The complex manner in which our various senses operate and provide information to the brain is a fascinating subject. The brain interprets the signals it receives and draws a conclusion from them. It accomplishes this feat through several different phenomena which are not totally understood. We do know that they can be misleading and result in an erroneous conclusion. A great deal of research and experimentation has been done in this field, and some of the findings and phenomena, which follow, are concepts that should be known by managers.⁴

PSY 006

STIMULUS AND RESPONSE

In a moment, stop reading this and remain still. You will probably be able to perceive a number of events or things around you with your senses. You can hear the clock tick or perhaps machinery noises. Then you feel the hardness or softness of your chair. You see the book in front of you. You can concentrate on the cool, salt air outside the gray door. You perceive these things in turn and in varying degrees as you allow your attention to scan the environment.

Attention has two characteristics, selectivity and vigilance. As our attention scans, it stops at various places and allows one of our senses, in effect, to focus. This is the selectivity aspect of attention where sensory information is detected and transmitted to the brain. This process happens very fast. In fact, we can talk of a perceptual field existing at a given time. When a particular stimulus occurs in the perceptual field, the brain somehow selects the sensory attention required and concentrates on their data with a vigilance that inhibits the other senses. Peripheral information is limited or cut off or stored without being noticed by our attention. Interestingly enough, when information comes in from more than one sensory channel, they must ultimately enter a central channel before they are noticed, attention. The effect is much like a Y-shaped pipe where sensory inputs enter from the two upper branches and travel to the brain through

the one lower branch. If two new inputs enter exactly at the same instant, neither is received. If one arrives a split second before the other, it holds up the other until it passes.

Perceptive set is another example of selectivity. If the perceptual field contains a complex stimulus, we must react to it in parts. Our perceptual set determines how we divide it. Set is a predisposition determined by previous experience, the nature of the stimulus, and our motives and needs. Experiments can show easily how this set can cause us to perceive something incorrectly. For example, many a sailor on his first liberty in Hong Kong has followed a Chinese girl with a beautiful figure in a tight Hong Kong dress, only to find when he could see her face that she was close to 60 years old!⁵

PSY 008 PERCEPTUAL INFERENCE AND SELECTIVITY

Our perception is an interpretation of the information received by our senses. We infer in a sort of unconscious way that certain signals represent things. We generalize with the data we receive. One concept we use in doing this is figure and ground. In any perceptual field, we distinguish particular things by seeing them as a figure with everything else as the ground. By this technique, we distinguish things as unique from their background. Examples are the moon as figure in a starry sky background (The navigator shoots his stars by selecting them in turn to be the figure) and a

nightingale's song over the chirping of the crickets. Figure-ground reversal is a phenomenon that happens when the same perception can have two meanings. The best known example is the silhouettes of two faces in profile with a contrasting background. Reversing figure and ground turns it into a vase. Perceptual set can make you see one figure over the other. The same effect can be noted in hearing. An example would be listening to the voices at a cocktail party and suddenly distinguishing one voice with which you were very familiar.⁶

PSY 009

THE FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDES

"Attitudes may be thought of as serving any of the following four functions:

1. The instrumental, adjustive, or utilitarian function.
2. The ego-defensive function "in which the person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truths about himself or the harsh realities of his external world."
3. The value-expressive function "in which the individual derives satisfaction from expressing attitudes appropriate to his personal values and to his concept of himself. This function is central to doctrines of ego psychology which stress the importance of self-expression, self-development, and self-realization."
4. The knowledge functions "based upon the individual's need to give adequate structure to his universe. The search for meaning, the need to understand, the trend toward better

organization of perceptions and beliefs to provide clarity and consistency for the individual, are other descriptions of this function."⁷

PSY 010

DEPTH PERCEPTION

This form of perception deals with our ability to determine the relative distance to an object. There are various cues that help us to determine an object's depth in the perceptual field. The first is motion or movement parallax. This is the result of objects in our visual field moving as we move our heads. Closer objects seem to move more than farther ones allowing us to classify distance. To see the effect, hold your finger in front of your face, look at the wall, and turn your head from side to side. The finger tends to move back and forth more than the wall does. The same effect can be seen driving on a highway. The poles of a fence beside the road zip past, but the house in the distance seems to be stationary. In this latter case, the presence of the fence demonstrates the value of fast-moving, close objects to give us a motion reference. The same effect occurs when we walk down a hallway. The walls beside us seem to race by while the end of the hall moves very slowly.

Texture is another perceptive cue. The roughness and relative shading of objects and materials can aid in recognizing depth. Closer objects have a larger texture gradient than do objects farther away, which seem smooth, therefore distant.

Size acts as a cue only in relation to other objects or to objects of known size. Linear perspective is an example of this. The most common example is two converging lines representing train tracks receding in a drawing.

Binocular disparity, or stereoscopic vision is another cue to help depth perception. Because our eyes are a few inches apart, each eye sees a slightly different picture. Once again, hold your finger in front of your face. Close one eye and look at the wall. Now do the same thing with the other eye closed. The background is seen to be slightly different. When we open both eyes, the two images merge into one, and we have the perception of depth. Another advantage of this separation of the eyes is the fact that we can see behind some objects. If we look at a telephone pole ahead of us as we did our finger, one eye at a time, each eye sees part of the background behind the pole. Putting them together allows us to see behind the pole. Another example of this ability is noted if we look out of a window with several small panes in it. If we want to see the scene outside, we visually ignore (or place in ground) the frames of the window and see the whole scene due to stereoscopic vision. To focus on an object, our eyes turn in slightly to converge the two images into one. If you looked a long distance with the lines of sight of each eye parallel, you would see a double image.

Light and shade are another cue. We perceive things according to the source of light illuminating them. Our

perception of depth depends on our perception of where the illumination is coming from.⁸

It must be remembered that we are busy perceiving all the time, and our behavior is closely intertwined with our perception. We want our behavior to be smooth, controlled, and, therefore, predictable to us from moment to moment. It follows, then, that we want perception to be similarly predictive. (The point is even more vivid when we make our setting the playing of a piano concerto.) Predictability in perception is provided by constancy, a tendency for the perception of things to be constant although the stimulus is different. There are four kinds of perceptual constancy, size, shape, brightness, and color. They are tied to our recognition of objects in spite of the fact that they may be sensed to be a different size, shape, brightness or color. That is, we take into account the perceptual field in interpreting or perceiving what the senses tell us. For example, I may be aboard ship at sea - I see an aircraft in the distance, and I perceive it to be a P3 Orion closing the ship. Constancy has allowed me to perceive predictability and correctly.

The real P3 Orion is a huge, four engine, patrol and anti-submarine aircraft, with the fuselage bottom painted a color to make it blend into the sky. My eyes saw a tiny figure about one half an inch wide, difficult to discern against a broken, cloudy sky, at an angle which hid one wing but showed most of the large tail. Size constancy allowed a half inch

airplane to be thought of as P3 size. Shape constancy knew where the other wing was and compensated for the angle from which I was viewing the P3. Brightness and color constancy accounted for the proper color even though the background kept changing from blue to white. I may even have expected it to be a P3 because I knew there would be one in the area. In such a situation, the constancies could just as well have lead me astray and embarrassed me as a Russian Bear long range patrol aircraft flew over my ship. Most of the time, perspective constancy aids us, but the potential for illusion should be remembered.⁹

PSY 012

AUDITORY SPACE PERCEPTION

A human with hearing in both ears can determine the location of sounds heard. Two good ears are required to determine the direction of a sound. Direction is perceived either from the time difference between the two ears hearing the same sound, or in the intensity difference the two ears hear in the same sound. In the first case, there is a time difference of about 1/1000 of a second between the time a sound beside you is heard by the closer ear and the ear on the other side of your head. We perceive the time difference and translate it into the direction of the sound. This works well with low frequencies, but higher frequency sound does not bend around the head very well, and a slight sound shadow is formed. It results in the sound being heard at a slightly lower intensity

by the ear in shadow. We then perceive the sound to be where the high intensity is located. Sound heard from directly ahead or behind is received at both ears simultaneously. There is a slight shadow from sound from behind formed by the fact that the external ear protrudes away from the head slightly. It produces a very slight intensity change for high frequency from behind, but it is about the same for both ears. Accordingly, we cannot perceive whether the sound is directly ahead or behind, unless we move our heads. Moving our head brings a time difference into play, giving us direction. Many animals, such as cats, can localize sound just by moving their ears to sharpen the intensity difference. For people, then, localization of sound is easiest from the side and worst from front and back. If we are free to move our head, however, we can localize any sound. Often, we also have our other senses to help in total perception of the field.¹⁰

PSY 013	<u>CONSCIOUSNESS</u>
PSY 014	<u>SLEEP AND DREAMS</u>
PSY 015	<u>HYPNOSIS</u>
PSY 016	<u>GESTALT PRINCIPLES</u>
PSY 017	<u>CUE LOSS</u>

We react to the world continually as we receive stimuli from our senses. However, everyone does not react to a

particular stimulus in the same way. Each person develops, through experience, his patterns of response which he deems appropriate for each stimulus or cue. Some cues become very familiar and manifest themselves in various norms, expectations, and continuities. When someone is displaced from his normal environment to one which is quite different in terms of the nature of the stimuli present, he can suffer from cue loss. Many of the familiar cues which gave him his ability to function in the environment may be gone or different. For example, an American in Japan for the first time cannot read any signs, cannot speak to the people, and must drive on the wrong side of the street. Cue loss can cause discomfort, anxiety, conflict, fear, even panic. In other situations, such as recruit training, a large body of new cues add to or replace those brought from civilian life. The disorientation and anxiety often results in homesickness, in part, a longing to return to an environment of familiar cues. Learning to deal with the new cues quickly eases the problem.¹¹

PSY 018

VISUAL CUES IN PREJUDICE

"The visual cue, then, acts as an anchorage point to which all manner of associations are tied. Among these associations are an additional array of sensory ideas. We slip quickly from the visual perception to the thought that the "blood" of people with differing skin colors must be different; also their odor and their impulses. We thus develop sensory,

instinctive, "zoological" explanations of our negative attitudes.

The process is natural enough because sensory aversions and annoyances are in fact common experiences. All of us have some almost reflex feelings of dislike or repugnance - perhaps to the feel of peaches, to the odor of garlic, the sound of chalk squeaking on a blackboard, to people with oily hair, bad breath, to streaky dishes, the taste of marshmallows, or to women who talk baby talk to their lap dogs. One investigator asked over a thousand people to name their antipathies and found that on the average each person mentioned 21 such sensory - or pseudosensory - dislikes. Furthermore, about two-fifths of the antipathies had to do with human physical traits, mannerisms, clothing.

A few of these sensory aversions may be inborn, though most are learned. However acquired, they bring a shudder and lead us to move away or otherwise protect ourselves from the stimulus. They are not themselves prejudices, but they provide a ready rationalization for prejudice. Here again there results condensation of the symbol and the attitude. Disliking out-groups for other reasons, we say we dislike them for sensory reasons."¹²

PSY 019

TRAVEL

"As the years go by we view our familiar surroundings with less and less freshness of perception. We no longer look

with a wakeful, perceiving eye at the faces of people we see every day, nor at any other features of our everyday world.

That is why travel is a vivid experience for most of us. Travel shakes us out of our apathy, and we regain an attentiveness that heightens every experience. The exhilaration of travel has many sources, but surely one of them is that we recapture in some measure the unspoiled awareness of children."

PSY 020

MEMORY AND LEARNING

PSY 021

MEMORY THEORY

The modern theories about memory deal with four areas:

Sensory Information Storage

Short-term memory

Long-term memory

Retrieval

SENSORY INFORMATION STORAGE

It has been found that humans form a very brief mental photograph of what they see or hear. It lasts less than a second, but a person can actually read this mental picture while it persists. It may be that this sensory storage ability is the first step in memory. Its most common exploitation is the motion picture where pictures and blanks are alternately flashed on a screen. Each is of only one-fiftieth of a second, but our brief mental photograph fills in the

blanks between pictures and makes the movie appear to be a continuous, moving picture.

SHORT-TERM MEMORY

We can hold information in our mind longer by rehearsing it. For example, when you look up a phone number, you can remember it long enough to dial it only if you keep repeating it to yourself. Short-term memory seldom violates the seven item limit (See Concept PSY 029). The length of time information can be remembered is a function of the amount of rehearsal performed. Short-term memory lasts only a matter of seconds with unfamiliar information.

LONG-TERM MEMORY

Long-term memory is still not understood well, and there is disagreement about the theories that exist. It is thought that much of what we remember is not recovery, but is a recreation of past events through cues, familiar sequences, and filling in blank spots with something appropriate. We seem to be able to remember an unlimited amount of pictorial information, but a restricted amount of verbal material. The mind seems to use spontaneous organization of information for easier memory. Sometimes we impose an organization scheme to help ourselves remember. Mnemonics (the M is silent) are information structures that we seem to know will help us remember. We are all familiar with word associations, rhyming, similar sounding words, and picture associations. The most common mnemonics in the Navy are probably used in remembering

signal flags from the flag bag. Mnemonic schemes which work for one person may be totally ineffective for another, implying that we each develop them from our own unique collection of information. It is an ability which requires effort to perform well. The reward of being able to remember is what may make it worth the trouble. The secret to long-term memory, then, may be in being able to organize short-term information into structures which associate with known information for easy recall, and rehearsal.

RETRIEVAL

The two methods of information retrieval are recognition and recall. In recognition, we are exposed to information and we try to remember if we have ever seen or heard it before. In recall, we are given a cue and try to generate something from our memory which corresponds to it. Recognition is easier than recall, because we are asked only for a yes or no answer as to whether or not the information presented is familiar. Motivation is tied to retrieval. When we want to remember we usually do better than with less motivation. If we commit a memory error, we can often blame it on the fact that we wanted to remember so much so that we invented something appropriate to cover the fact that we just couldn't find any facts in our memory.¹⁴

There is more than one theory on forgetting. One view is that forgetting may be the result of never storing the information in the first place, or of the information fading or being erased, or of just an inability to retrieve it. In this latter case, suppression or repression of the memory takes place through either a conscious or an unconscious decision. Indications that the information is really there, but that the retrieval mechanism bypasses it, is evident by a display of anxiety or embarrassment over the subject.

Another theory states that some forgetting is caused by interference from other information. If the interference occurs during the acquisition process, the information may never reach the long-term memory. Rote learned information seems particularly easy to interfere with. Some researchers have found interference increases the more similar the events we try to remember are. Some believe the manner of information organization can increase interference. It has been observed that we seem to more easily remember the first and the last items in a string of things to be learned. Their very position in the string makes them unique and easy to label. The items in the middle are much harder to organize and rehearse sufficiently.

Experiments have shown that people forget far less if they sleep for several hours immediately after exposure to the information than if they stay awake.¹⁵

"The human mind must think with the aid of categories (the term is equivalent here to generalizations). Once formed, categories are the basis for normal prejudgment. We cannot possibly avoid this process. Orderly living depends upon it.

We may say that the process of categorization has five important characteristics.

(1) It forms large classes and clusters for guiding our daily adjustments. We spend most of our waking life calling upon preformed categories for this purpose. When the sky darkens and the barometer falls we prejudge that rain will fall. We adjust to this cluster of happenings by taking along an umbrella. When an angry-looking dog charges down the street, we categorize him as a "mad dog" and avoid him. When we go to a physician with an ailment we expect him to behave in a certain way toward us. On these, and countless other occasions, we "type" a single event, place it within a familiar rubric, and act accordingly. Sometimes we are mistaken: the event does not fit the category. It does not rain; the dog is not mad; the physician behaves unprofessionally. Yet our behavior was rational. It was based on high probability. Though we used the wrong category, we did the best we could.

What all this means is that our experience in life tends to form itself into clusters (concepts, categories), and while we may call on the right cluster at the wrong time, or the

wrong cluster at the right time, still the process in question dominates our entire mental life. A million events befall us every day. We cannot handle so many events. If we think of them at all, we type them." ...

(2) "Categorization assimilates as much as it can to the cluster. There is a curious inertia in our thinking. We like to solve problems easily. We can do so best if we can fit them rapidly into a satisfactory category and use this category as a means of prejudging the solution. The story is told of the pharmacists's mate in the Navy who had only two categories into which he fitted every ailment that came to his attention on sick call; if you can see it put iodine on it; if you can't, give the patient a dose of salts. Life was simple for this pharmacist's mate; he ran his whole professional life with the aid of only two categories.

The point may be stated in this way: the mind tends to categorize environmental events in the "grossest" manner compatible with the need for action. If the pharmacists's mate in our story were called to task for his overcrude practice of medicine, he might then mend his ways and learn to employ more discriminated categories. But so long as we can "get away" with coarse overgeneralizations we tend to do so. (Why? Well, it takes less effort, and effort, except in the area of our most intense interests, is disagreeable.)"

(3) The category enables us quickly to identify a related object. Every event has certain marks that serve as a cue to

bring the category of prejudgment into action. When we see a red-breasted bird, we say to ourselves "robin." When we see a crazily swaying automobile, we think "drunken driver" and act accordingly."

..."Thus categories have a close and immediate tie with what we see, how we judge, and what we do. In fact, their whole purpose seems to be to facilitate perception and conduct - in other words, to make our adjustment to life speedy, smooth, and consistent. This principle holds even though we often make mistakes in fitting events to categories and thus get ourselves into trouble.

(4) The category saturates all that it contains with the same ideational and emotional flavor. Some categories are almost purely intellectual. Such categories we call concepts. Tree is a concept made up of our experience with hundreds of kinds of trees and with thousands of individual trees, and yet it has essentially one ideational meaning. But many of our concepts (even tree) have in addition to a "meaning" also a characteristic "feeling." We not only know what tree is but we like trees. And so it is with ethnic categories. Not only do we know what Chinese, Mexican, Londoner mean, but we may have a feeling of favor or disfavor accompanying the concept.

(5) Categories may be more or less rational. We have said that generally a category starts to grow up from a "kernel of truth." A rational category does so, and enlarges and

solidifies itself through the increment of relevant experience. Scientific laws are examples of rational categories. They are backed up by experience. Every event to which they pertain turns out in a certain way. Even if the laws are not 100 percent perfect, we consider them rational if they have a high probability of predicting a happening." ...

"We have said that irrational categories are formed as easily as rational categories. Probably they are formed more easily, for intense emotional feelings have a property of acting like sponges. Ideas, engulfed by an overpowering emotion, are more likely to conform to the emotion than to objective evidence.

An irrational category is one formed without adequate evidence. It may be that the person is simply ignorant of the evidence, in which case a misconception is formed..."¹⁶

PSY 025

SET

People have a tendency to continue to use a particular form or method of problem solving if experience has shown it works or if they are given directions pointing to a particular method. This set is a kind of rigidity in how you think about something. Habits are an example of a set. Many habits help us to solve everyday problems quickly, without much apparent thought. We have already thought it through and have standardized a solution. In one example of set, a person driving from work intends to divert for an errand on the way

home. He suddenly finds himself in his driveway having let his mind wander and let his set for the way home take over the job of controlling the car. Another example of set occurs when we are asked to use a familiar object in an unfamiliar way. We tend to consider only those facets of the situation that are used in the familiar situation, ignoring those we need to act correctly. As a result, we often take much longer than we could to find the proper solution.¹⁷

PSY 026

FACE PERCEPTION

PSY 027

VERBAL LABELS

"In the empirical world of human beings there are some two and a half billion grains of sand corresponding to our category 'the human race.' We cannot possibly deal with so many separate entities in our thought, nor can we individualize even among the hundreds whom we encounter in our daily round. We must group them, form clusters. We welcome, therefore, the names that help us to perform the clustering.

The most important property of a noun is that it brings many grains of sand into a single pail, disregarding the fact that the same grains might have fitted just as appropriately into another pail. To state the matter technically, a noun abstracts from a concrete reality some one feature and assembles different concrete realities only with respect to this one feature. The very act of classifying forces us to

overlook all other features, many of which might offer a sounder basis than the rubric we select.

Some labels, such as "blind man," are exceedingly salient and powerful. They tend to prevent alternative classification, or even cross-classification. Ethnic labels are often of this type, particularly if they refer to some highly visible feature, e.g., Negro, Oriental. They resemble the labels that point to some outstanding incapacity - feeble-minded, cripple, blind man. Let us call such symbols "labels of primary potency." These symbols act like shrieking sirens, deafening us to all finer discriminations that we might otherwise perceive. Even though the blindness of one man and the darkness of pigmentation of another may be defining attributes for some purposes, they are irrelevant and "noisy" for others.

Most people are unaware of this basic law of language - that every label applied to a given person refers properly only to one aspect of his nature. You may correctly say that a certain man is human, a philanthropist, a Chinese, a physician, an athlete. A given person may be all of these; but the chances are that Chinese stands out in your mind as the symbol of primary potency. Yet neither this nor any other classificatory label can refer to the whole of a man's nature. (Only his proper name can do so.)

Thus each label we use, especially those of primary potency, distracts our attention from concrete reality. The

living, breathing, complex individual - the ultimate unit of human nature - is lost to sight."¹⁸

PSY 028

HABIT

PSY 029

SEVEN

Studies in recent years have suggested that there is a limit of seven (plus or minus two) to the number of items of information the human mind can process. Quantities greater than seven seem too hard to keep track of. For example, how many random numbers can you remember when they are given in a string? When an official says, "Repeat after me.", how many words at a time can you repeat correctly?

This limit applies only to the number of like items that can be discreetly handled. Each item can be from an endless amount of information in the mind. The technique we use to handle large quantities of information is to structure it into familiar chunks. The mind can handle about seven of these chunks, and often handles chunks of chunks. The more experience and familiarity we have with the information the better we are able to structure it. A concert pianist has succeeded in doing this to a high degree. A simpler example would be with a cluster of twelve pennies on a table top. To know the total, you would probably have to count them one by one. But, if they were structured into three clusters of four pennies, you could tell the answer at a glance.¹⁹

PSY 030

FORMS OF LEARNING

PSY 031

HIERARCHIES OF LEARNING

PSY 032

LEARNING BY SUBSIDIATION

"The law of subsidiation might be stated as follows: there will be a tendency to acquire ethnic attitudes to conform to whatever dominant frames of value the individual has. Since values are a personal matter, lying at the center of one's ego-structure, we might also state the law as follows: there will be a tendency to acquire ethnic attitudes to conform to whatever self-image the individual has.

The law asserts that the proces of learning prejudice is not exclusively (nor primarily) a product of external influence. Prejudice is not merely a matter of propaganda, of handing the young person a ready-made attitude, of the impact of movies, comic books or radio. It is not merely a matter of specific parental teaching, nor of rationalizing any and all occurrences through "closure." It is not a matter of blind imitation or mirroring the culture. It is all these things, provided their influence is "subsidiated" to the child's growing philosophy of life. If they seem to fit his own image of himself, to confer status upon him, to have "functional significance" for him, he will then be more likely to learn the lesson."²⁰

We tend to think that the best way to solve problems is by the valid and reliable reasoning of pure logic. Although logic is necessary to many problems, it often is relatively cumbersome for finding the correct solution to everyday problems. People tend to use rules of thumb that their experience tells them are usually accurate. Logic would require analysis of every possible route to a solution. Rules of thumb are merely the most likely routes that our experience tells us are probably correct. People are in the habit of taking this short cut. Indeed, the facts needed for a logical solution may not be available, dictating the use of rules of thumb. Often we use the short method even when we can use logic and be positive. We can get into trouble, because some problems have an obvious choice that the rules of thumb forces us to and which is incorrect. The content of the problem can greatly affect this chance for error. For example, a child asked to add 5 and 5 may say 55. If asked instead how many fingers do you get if you add 5 fingers on one hand to the 5 fingers on the other hand, the response would probably be correct. The problems are of equal complexity. The way they are expressed makes the difference. People do not always use all of the information available in the problem. It frequently takes a conscious effort to reject the first possible solution and to look further.

There are a few rules of thumb that some think are basic to all human problem solving. One is means - end analysis. Knowing the end you are trying to reach, you begin calling up means that you are familiar with which allow you to reach the end. Another rule is working backward. The nature of the problem may indicate to you that you will have more means to consider if you work the problem from the end to the beginning. These simple rules form the basis for solving very complex problems where the beginning or end are known and the solution is of the correct-incorrect type.²¹

PSY 034

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

With regard to problem solving, it is likely that a person with greater experience and training in a specific area will be a better problem solver than someone unfamiliar with the subject. Many psychologists feel there is an intelligence factor above and beyond experience that makes some people better problem solvers than others. Others disagree, feeling that intelligence tests are not valid. It does seem that differences in solving problems occur because of varying motivation to find a solution. Higher motivation can increase success, but in some cases can result in anxiety that reduces problem solving ability. Such anxiety tends to increase rigidity and set in problem solving.²²

PSY 035

CREATIVITY²³

PSY 036

THE FLASH OF INSIGHT

The usual methods of problem solving or thinking about something complex occasionally seem to have failed, when suddenly the total solution is clear in one single flash of understanding. When such an "aha" phenomenon occurs, the learned information does not usually degenerate. A number of examples of scientific breakthroughs are documented that came to the discoverer in this way.²⁴

PSY 037

INTERNALIZATION

PSY 038

INTELLIGENCE AND THOUGHT

PSY 039

PIAGET'S PERIODS/STAGES₂₅
OF DEVELOPMENT

PSY 040

THE SENSORIMOTOR PERIOD

PSY 041

THE PREOPERATIONAL PERIOD

PSY 042

THE CONCRETE-OPERATIONAL PERIOD

PSY 043

THE FORMAL-OPERATIONAL PERIOD

PSY 044

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

Since the turn of the century, psychologists have devised tests to measure intelligence, aptitude, skills, interests, and personality. Obviously, some facets of mental ability are easier to measure than others. Most tests assign a score of some kind.

There are several criterion which are used to compare activity in real life with the activity being measured by a psychological test. One is validity, the degree to which the test actually measures the feature it is supposed to measure. Another is reliability, the stability of the test in its ability to measure the same thing repeatedly with consistent results. Norms are used to give meaning to test scores. They are the normal distribution of scores that a sample of the general population received on the test. Thus, by comparison, a person's score tells him how well he did relative to everyone else.

The most famous psychological test is the IQ, or intelligence quotient. The test result determines the mental age of the child. Dividing mental age by actual age when tested ($\times 100$) gives the IQ. Another general aptitude test in the Navy is the GCT, or general classification test.

Some disagreement exists about the validity of psychological tests in general. Some critics feel that tests are written such that certain social groups have an advantage over others through a built-in bias in the wording of the question.²⁶

PSY 045

CULTURE FREE TESTS

PSY 046

EXPERIENCE

We all value our own personal experience in life, gained the hard way in the school of hard knocks. We soberly agree

when someone says that experience is the best teacher. We think our experience has given us some pretty clear wisdom on many subjects, but it is very difficult to get others to value our experience as much as we do.

The truth is that experience certainly teaches, but it teaches error and wrong lessons just as well as it does right ones. In fact, the same experience seems to teach different things to different people. The world is full of people who are maladjusted, misguided, and just plain evil, yet they have their own set of experiences just like ours. Indeed, their problems may all come from unfortunate experience.

It is important to recognize that there is nothing magic about experience itself, no matter how personal and right it feels. Rather than puff yourself up about the high quality of your experience, it may be wiser to keep in mind the many times your experience has misled you. Rather than say "I know from experience," think "My experience is all that I know."²⁷

PSY 047

DIRECTED AND AUTISTIC
THINKING/RATIONALIZATION

"When thinking is used efficiently to anticipate reality, we speak of reasoning. If it genuinely advances the person along his way to important and fundamental goals in life, squaring so far as possible with the objectively known properties of the stimulus-object, we say the person is reasoning.

He may, of course, make errors in his reasoning, but still if the total direction is realistically oriented, we affirm the basically rational character of his thought. This normal, problem-solving process is usually called "directed" thinking.

To it we may contrast fantasied, autistic, or "free" thinking. Often our minds run on, turning up one idea after another, making no progress whatsoever toward a given goal. Daydreams, for example, may picture a goal and bring an imaginary success in fantasy; but they normally do not advance us. The term autistic thinking is a good one to adopt for this less rational form of mental activity. Autistic means 'referring to self.'²⁸

... "An important accompaniment of autistic thinking is rationalization. People do not like to admit that their thinking is autistic.

In fact, they usually do not know that it is. Especially do people resist any imputation that their thinking is due to prejudice. They generally have a more respectable reason to offer."²⁹

"It is not possible always to distinguish between reasoning and rationalization, especially between errors in reasoning and rationalization. The term rationalization should be used cautiously and applied only to cases where there is palpably false justification given for what is in reality an autistic course of thinking.

One reason why rationalizations are so hard to detect is that they generally obey the following rules. (1) They tend to conform to some accepted social canons. It is all right to reject an "uncouth" candidate for president - even if this is not the real reason for rejecting him. (2) They tend to approximate as closely as possible the canons of accepted logic. Though not real reasons, they are at least good reasons. It sounds sensible not to drink from a cup because of fear of disease, even though this is not the basic reason for refusing to do so."³⁰

PSY 048

ADULT LIFE CYCLES

Although psychologists have conducted research into the stages of childhood development for many years, only recently have they begun looking at adult cycles. The research that has been conducted is restricted to white, middleclass American men. Nevertheless, it has yielded consistent results and shows promising future value in furthering our understanding of adult behavior. Findings thus far highlight the following stages:

16-22 years: Leaving the Family.

During this period, previous fantasies about adulthood slowly disappear. Peer associations become more influential in helping to break away from the family. Peer group values tend to be adopted; yet, at the same time, emotions are hidden from others. Friendships are often superficial and easily broken.

23-28 years: Reaching Out.

As a developing adult, the person is expansive and ever intense in conquering the world. He avoids things that could jeopardize his progress, such as emotional extremes and critical analysis of commitments. Togetherness in marriage is a common feature. As well, a man may select a mentor - a patron and supporter eight to fifteen years older-during this stage.

29-34 years: Questions, Questions.

Around the age of 30, a crisis develops. It takes the form of wavering assurance, anxiety over coping with life, and many new questions. The behavior demanded by his wife, boss, and society conflicts with what he thinks his true self dictates. Accordingly, his marriage may seem to be an obstacle to his development and progress. There is a decline in social activity and a susceptibility to infidelity and divorce. There are conflicting drives for order and stability, for freedom from all restraints, for success at work. In wrestling over these forces, he may display crassness, callowness, and materialism. One researcher says that a man must start to settle down by age 34, or his chances of forming a reasonably satisfying life structure are very small.

35-42 years: Mid-Life Explosion.

This stage is also called the male menopause and the mid-pause. The first emotional awareness that death will come and time is running out occurs during this stage. It is an unstable, explosive time, much like adolescence. All values

are open to question, and there is concern over whether there is time to change. The mentor chosen in the second stage is dropped. Becoming one's own man (called BOOM by one researcher) is emphasized instead. One's parents are blamed for any personality problems that remain unresolved. The overriding feature is that there is one last chance to make it big in one's career. Often, the end of this stage yields a changed person. He chooses nurturing, teaching and serving others, often as a mentor to a younger man.

44-45 years: Settling Down.

This is a stable time in which the die has been cast, decisions must be lived with, and life settles down. Increasing attention is given to a few old values and a few old friends. Money is less important. Married people turn to each other for sympathy as they once did to their parents. In a final attempt to cut free from their mother, men may have fantasies of young erotic girls and of older, nurturing women.

After 50 years: The Mellowing.

The tendencies during this period are to avoid emotion-laden issues and to be preoccupied with everyday joys, irritations and triumphs. There is a softening of feelings and relationships. If the parents were blamed for personal problems, it ends here. People tend to live for today with little concern for either the past or the future.

These stages are tentative findings from research that must continue for many years before it gains universal acceptance. Thus far, the studies suggest that personality disorders arise where the normal journey through the stages is disrupted for some reason. For example, a man who never forms an identity in adolescence may be developmentally retarded at the childhood level. Although he may sail through life with a happy-go-lucky air, he never achieves BOOM, intimacy, nurturing or the ability to teach and serve others.³¹

PSY 049	<u>LANGUAGE</u> ³²
PSY 050	<u>LINGUISTICS</u> ³³
PSY 051	<u>SPEECH</u> ³⁴
PSY 052	<u>READING</u> ³⁵
PSY 053	<u>LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT</u> ³⁶
PSY 054	<u>DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR</u> ³⁷
PSY 055	<u>SEMANTICS</u>
PSY 056	<u>BLACK ENGLISH</u> ³⁸
PSY 057	<u>EMOTIONS</u>

"An emotion is the psychosomatic form in which a person experiences his estimate of the beneficial or harmful relationship of some aspect of reality to himself.

An emotion is a value-response. It is the automatic psychological result of a super-rapid, subconscious appraisal. Emotions are psychomatic embodiments of value judgments.

Since emotions are the product of complex integrations of ideas, beliefs and experiences, they cannot be commanded in or out of existence, neither by an act of will nor by repression. It is a disastrous error to imagine that an emotion--merely because it is judged undesirable--can be dismissed or repressed with impunity.

With the acquisition and integration of new understanding, one can change the content of future emotions. But, at any given moment, once an emotion exists, it exists; it is a fact of reality--the reality of one's own person.

Once an emotion arises in a human organism, it tends to follow a natural course of its own; it is experienced, it is expressed in some form of bodily behavior and it is discharged. That is the normal progression. When that process is blocked by denial or repression, unresolved tensions remain in the body--the emotion is 'damned up,' as it were--even if conscious awareness of the emotion has been extinguished, or was never permitted to occur.

This does not mean that every emotion need be acted on; every emotion carries with it the impulse to perform some particular action--but emotion and action are two different and distinct categories, and such impulses need not be obeyed blindly and uncritically. What the organism does require

for its well-being, however--especially in the case of emotions that are more than superficial and momentary--is that they be experienced and acknowledged.

Whether a person's values and value judgments in any given situation are correct or mistaken, and whether it is appropriate and possible to act on his feelings or not--his emotions reflect the meaning that reality has for him at that point in time. They are to be treated seriously. They are not to be dismissed as inconsequential or irrelevant. One does not destroy an emotion by refusing to feel it or acknowledge it; one merely disowns a part of one's self."³⁹

"Man is a self-programmer. Just as this principle operates in regard to his cognitive development, so it operates in regard to his value development. As he acquires values and disvalues, these, too, become automatized; he is not obliged, in every situation he encounters, to recall all of his values to his conscious mind in order to form an estimate. In response to his perception of some aspect of reality, his subconscious is triggered into a lightning-like process of integration and appraisal. For example, if an experienced motorist perceives an oncoming truck veering toward a collision, he does not need a new act of conscious reasoning in order to grasp the fact of danger; faster than any thought could take shape in words, he registers the significance of what he perceives, his foot flies to the brake or his hands swiftly turn the wheel.

One of the forms in which these lightning-like appraisals present themselves to man's conscious mind is his emotions.

His emotional capacity is man's automatic barometer of what is for him or against him (within the context of his knowledge and values). The relationship of value-judgments to emotions is that of cause to effect. An emotion is a value-response...

The sequence of psychological events is: from perception to evaluation to emotional response. On the level of immediate awareness, however, the sequence is: from perception to emotion. A person may or may not be consciously aware of the intervening value-judgment. A separate act of focused awareness may be required to grasp it, because of the extreme rapidity of the sequence. That a person may fail to identify either the judgment or the factors involved in it, that he may be conscious only of the perceptions and of his emotional response, is the fact which makes possible man's confusion about the nature and source of emotions.

There are many reasons why a person may remain unaware of the evaluative processes underlying his emotions. Among the most important of these reasons are the following:

1. Competence at introspecting and identifying one's own mental processes has to be acquired; it has to be learned. Most people have not formed the habit of seeking to account to themselves for the reasons of their beliefs, emotions and

desires; consequently, where they do attempt it, they frequently fail--and do not persevere.

2. Most people do not hold their values and convictions in clearly defined form. Vagueness and obscurity characterize a good deal of their mental contents. Their beliefs and values have never been formulated in precise, objective language, and are stored in the subconscious only as approximations, by means of pre-verbal symbols, such as images, which their owners cannot easily translate into objective, articulate speech.

3. Sometimes, an emotion and the value-considerations underlying it are extremely complex. For example, suppose a wife is emotionally upset; she knows that the feeling involves her husband. Perhaps he has been inconsiderate of her in some way; but he is working very hard and is under a strain; but she, too, is under a strain and is tired of bearing the emotional burden of his work pressures; still, she knows that she is inclined to be oversensitive; on the other hand, she wants to be honest with him about her feelings; but she does not want to upset him and, perhaps, make the situation worse. All of these considerations may be clashing in her subconscious. On the conscious level, she feels an emotion of diffuse irritation at the universe in general, at her husband in particular, plus some amount of guilt--and she cannot untangle the reasons.

4. Sometimes, one responds emotionally to things of which one is not aware. For example, one may meet a person for whom one feels an almost instant dislike; yet, if one searches one's mind, one can think of nothing objectionable that he has said or done. It may be the case that one was peripherally aware of affectations in his posture and way of moving; or of some subtle insincerity in his voice; or of some negative implications in his remarks that one did not pause to identify fully--and one's subconscious reacted accordingly.

5. The single most formidable obstacle to identifying the roots of one's emotions is repression. Since the values that underlie some people's emotional reactions are offensive to their self-respect and conscious convictions, the causes of such reactions may be barred from awareness."⁴⁰

"The mere perception of an object has no power to create an emotion in man--let alone to determine the content of the emotion. The emotional response to an object is inexplicable, except in terms of the value-significance of the object to the perceiver. And this necessarily implies a process of appraisal. For example, three men look at a scoundrel: the first man recognizes to what extent that person, in his craven irrationality, has betrayed his status as a human being--and feels contempt; the second man wonders how he can be safe in a world where such persons can prosper--and feels fear; the third man secretly envies the scoundrel's 'success'--and feels

a sneaking admiration. All these men perceive the same object. The differences in their emotional reactions proceed from differences in their evaluation of the significance of what they perceive."⁴¹

PSY 058

MAJOR EMOTIONS

PSY 059

JEALOUSY

PSY 060

PHYSIOLOGICAL EXPRESSION

PSY 061

MOODS

PSY 062

CATHARSIS

PSY 063

PERSONALITY

Personality is the sum total of all of a person's habitual traits and qualities of behavior. Each of us observes in particular the behavior of others, and we assimilate our observations so as to categorize like features and to predict future behavior. In the process, we evolve our own "experience" theory of personality in terms of what we conclude are the underlying reasons for people's behavior.

There are numerous formal theories of personality. They differ from our personal, intuitive theories in that they are constructed by psychologists to apply to mankind in general, they are built upon logic and research, and they attempt to provide hypotheses that can be verified by others.⁴²

PSY 064 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY⁴³

PSY 065 FREUDIAN CONCEPTS⁴⁴

PSY 066 STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

PSY 067 NEEDS

PSY 068 TRAITS

Traits were emphasized by Allport as the most important concept in his theory of personality. He described a trait as a predisposition to respond in the same way to many different stimuli. They are formed both by generic factors and experience. Traits not only guide behavioral responses to stimuli from the environment, but they act as the motives for general behavior too. No two people have exactly the same traits, but in a general fashion, common traits can be described by words such as dominance, autonomy, and simplification. Of particular interest is his belief (which he called functional autonomy) that traits are independent of any reinforcement or connection with basic biological needs. A trait may have been originally formed through a biological need such as a boy's desire to achieve something to please his mother, but, as an adult, he will possibly be an achiever through no continuing reference to the mother. The tendency to achieve becomes self-sustaining. Because traits are driven by contemporary events then, the personality of an adult

contains traits, perhaps formed while young, but which have been redirected through some adult motive.⁴⁵

PSY 069

BEHAVIORISM

PSY 070

BELIEFS, ATTITUDES AND VALUES

The various beliefs, attitudes and values that people hold govern much of their behavior. Beliefs are concepts of information that a person believes to be true or factual. Attitudes are predispositions to think in a particular way about broad categories of ideas. Values are convictions regarding how one should act or a standard which should be desired.⁴⁶

"An adult probably has tens or hundreds of thousands of beliefs, thousands of attitudes, but only dozens of values."⁴⁷

PSY 071

THE IMPACT OF PREJUDICE

"Ask yourself what would happen to your own personality if you heard it said over and over again that you were lazy, a simple child of nature, expected to steal, and had inferior blood. Suppose this opinion were forced on you by the majority of your fellow citizens. And suppose nothing that you could do would change this opinion - because you happen to have black skin.

Or suppose you heard daily that you were expected to be shrewd, sharp, and successful in business, that you were not wanted in clubs and hotels, that you were expected to mingle

only with Jews and then, if you did so, were roundly blamed for it. And suppose nothing that you could do would change this opinion - because you happened to be a Jew.

One's reputation, whether false or true, cannot be hammered, hammered, hammered, into one's head without doing something to one's character.

A child who finds himself rejected and attacked on all sides is not likely to develop dignity and poise as his outstanding traits. On the contrary, he develops defenses. Like a dwarf in a world of menacing giants, he cannot fight on equal terms. He is forced to listen to their derision and laughter and submit to their abuse."⁴⁸

PSY 072

MOTIVATION

PSY 073

INSTINCTS

PSY 074

NEEDS AND DRIVES

PSY 075

THIRST

PSY 076

HUNGER

PSY 077

TEMPERATURE CONTROL

PSY 078

SEX

PSY 079

FEAR AND AGGRESSION

PSY 080

FRUSTRATION

Frustration is an elementary part of living. People are motivated in countless ways, both large and small, consciously and unconsciously. When our motives are in some way blocked, denied or unsatisfied, conflict results, and we feel the emotion called frustration. As children, the manner in which we learned to cope with frustration molds us and our disposition. The inability to cope with the frustration that is unavoidable in life is common in varying degrees in people, and, of course, shows itself particularly in situations of high conflict. Frustration can lead to anxiety or aggression. In the Navy, the most common disciplinary problem is AWOL. Its cause is often unresolved conflict over a situation at the unit. Running away eases the anxiety, but on return, it is often even worse.⁴⁹

PSY 081

CONFLICT

PSY 082

THEORIES OF HUMAN MOTIVATION

PSY 083

MOTIVES

PSY 084

ACHIEVEMENT

PSY 085

ENVY AND DIFFERENTIAL STATUS

"Economic worries have their origins in hunger and the need to survive. But they continue to exist long after this rational function has been fulfilled. They ramify into the

need for status, prestige, self-esteem. Food is no longer the issue, nor is money - excepting so far as it can buy that one thing in life that is always short in supply: differential status.

Not everyone can be "on top." Not everyone wants to be. But most people want to be higher on the status ladder than they are."

"The hunger for status is matched by a haunting fear that one's status may not be secure. The effort to maintain a precarious position can bring with it an almost reflex disparagement of others....

The philosopher Hume once pointed out that envy seems to appear only when the distance between ourselves and those more fortunate than ourselves is small enough so that we can reasonably compare ourselves with them - the "narcissism of small differences." A schoolboy does not envy Aristotle, but he may envy his neighbor whose "A" in a course of study makes his own grades seem intolerably low. Slaves probably did not envy their rich masters - the gap was too great - but they may well have envied other slaves who had positions of favor. Whenever rigid class distinctions break down or mobility increases, there is much more occasion for envy."⁵⁰

PSY 086

ADJUSTMENT

"The basic function of man's consciousness is awareness-- and, collaterally, the regulation of behavior.

If a man is to act effectively, if he is to maintain and further his life, he requires a knowledge of his environment and of his own state--of external reality and of internal reality--of the world and of self.

His faculty of awareness is indispensable to his survival. In order to function successfully, man needs to be in contact with the universe in which he acts--and with his own needs, feelings, desires, frustrations, capabilities and goals. To the extent that his awareness is blocked, to the extent that he is blind to facts about the world or about himself which, in the absence of his blocks, would be available to him, his life and well-being are impaired.

When his mind is unblocked and unobstructed, a person tends to maintain a free, natural, spontaneous flow of awareness back and forth, between the outer world and the inner, as circumstances require. A person's needs, interests, goals and general context, at any given time, determine the aspects of external reality that will be drawn into the forefront of awareness.

A blindness concerning important aspects of self leads to a blindness concerning important aspects of the environment. For instance, a person who denies the presence of a need will be oblivious to opportunities to satisfy that need. A person who denies the reality of his pain will be blind to the source of the pain and will continually reexpose himself to new hurt. A person who guiltily disowns certain of his own desires may,

via the mechanism of projection, falsely attribute them to others. Thus, we are led to a profoundly important law of psychological functioning. Awareness moves freely in both directions--or it moves freely in neither."⁵¹

PSY 087

NORMAL ADJUSTMENT

PSY 088

SELF-ESTEEM

"Self-esteem has two interrelated aspects: a sense of personal efficacy and a sense of personal worth. It is the conviction that one is competent to live and be worthy of living.

The conviction that one is competent to live means confidence in the functioning of one's mind; confidence in one's ability to understand and judge the facts of reality (within the sphere of one's interests and needs); intellectual self-reliance. The conviction that one is worthy of living means: an affirmative attitude toward one's right to live and to be happy; a self-respect derived from the conviction that one practices the virtues one's life and happiness require.

Self-esteem is a basic need of man, a cardinal requirement of his mental health and psychological well-being. There is no value judgment more important to man than the estimate he passes on himself.

This estimate is ordinarily experienced by him, not in the form of a conscious, verbalized judgment, but in the form of a feeling, a feeling that can be hard to isolate and

identify because he experiences it constantly; it is part of every other feeling, it is involved in his every emotional response.

An emotion is the product of an evaluation; it reflects an appraisal of the beneficial or harmful relationship of some aspect of reality to oneself. Thus, a man's view of himself is necessarily implicit in all his value-responses. Any judgment entailing the issue, 'Is this for me or against me?' - entails a view of the 'me' involved. His self-evaluation is an omnipresent factor in man's psychology."⁵²

PSY 089

TOLERANCE

"The genetic theory underlying such scrupulosity has to do with the child's early failure to live with his own impulses. Suppose he is punished and made to feel guilty whenever he soils himself, whenever he is found handling his genitals, whenever he has a temper tantrum, whenever he strikes his parent. A child who finds his every impulse wicked - and feels that he is unloved when he gives way to it - is likely to grow up hating himself for his many transgressions. He carries a burden of infantile guilt. As a consequence, when he sees any lapses from the conventional code in others, he grows anxious. He wishes to punish the transgressor, just as he himself was punished. He develops a dread of the very impulses that trouble him. When a person grows overconcerned with sin in others, the tendency may be viewed as a "reaction

formation." Having had to fight unholy impulses in himself, he cannot be permissive and lenient toward others.

The tolerant individual, by contrast, seems to have learned how to accept socially tabooed impulses early in life. He is not afraid of his own instincts; he is not a prude; he views bodily functions in a natural way. He knows that anyone may fall from grace. In his own upbringing his parents were skillful in teaching him the socially correct line of conduct without withdrawing their love when he failed to toe this line. The tolerant individual, having learned to accept the evil in his nature, does not grow anxious and fearful whenever he sees (or imagines) similar evil in others. His view is humane, compassionate, understanding."⁵³

PSY 090

PERSONAL GROWTH

"Growth has not only rewards and pleasures but also many intrinsic pains and always will have. Each step forward is a step into the unfamiliar and is possibly dangerous. It also means giving up something familiar and good and satisfying. It frequently means a parting and a separation, even a kind of death prior to rebirth, with consequent nostalgia, fear, loneliness and mourning. It also often means giving up a simpler and easier and less effortful life, in exchange for a more demanding, more responsible, more difficult life. Growth forward is in spite of these losses and therefore requires courage, will, choice, and strength in the individual, as well as

protection, permission and encouragement from the environment, especially for the child."⁵⁴

PSY 091

THE INTEGRATED PERSONALITY

"People who are well along in this course of development are likely to be troubled by the truly fundamental conflict that prejudice arouses

Such people are well on the way to getting rid of all hostilities based on stereotyped categories. They are gradually coming to discriminate between fanciful sources of evil (prejudice) and genuine sources. A given individual may for good reason be regarded as an enemy; certain vices or unlikable qualities in people may be hated; occasionally a corporate entity, such as an antisocial organization or foreign government, may for good reasons be declared insupportable. There are such things as realistic opponents in our quest for our values. But what vanishes in an integrated personality are the racial bogies and traditional scapegoats who have nothing, really, to do with life's woes.

Perhaps few people achieve integration of this type; but many are fairly far along the road. They acquire a humane outlook because they know that most mortals are not their enemies, and that most of the designated villains in society are neither dangerous nor designing. Such resentments and hatred as they may have are reserved strictly for those who

actually threaten basic value systems. Only a personality organized in such a manner can be fully integrated."⁵⁵

PSY 092 SELF-ACTUALIZATION⁵⁶

PSY 093 FRUSTRATION

PSY 094 CONFLICT

PSY 095 FEAR AND ANXIETY

"Rational and adaptive fear entails the accurate perception of the source of danger. An illness, an approaching fire or flood, a highwayman, are among the conditions that make for realistic fear. When we perceive the source of the threat accurate, we ordinarily strike back at it or withdraw to safety.

Sometimes the source of the fear is correctly perceived, but the person can do nothing to control it. A workman fearful of losing his job or citizens living in a vague apprehension of atomic warfare are swayed by fear, but they are powerless. Under such circumstances, the fear becomes chronic - and we speak of anxiety.

Chronic anxiety puts us on the alert and predisposes us to see all sorts of stimuli as menacing. A man who lives in constant dread of losing his job feels surrounded by danger. He is sensitized to perceive the Negro or the foreigner as trying to take his job away from him. Here is a displacement of a realistic fear.

Sometimes the source of the fear is not known, or has been forgotten or repressed. The fear may be merely a mounting residue of inner feelings of weakness in dealing with the hazards of the outer world. Time and again the sufferer may have failed to win in his encounters with life. He thus develops a generalized feeling of inadequacy. He is fearful of life itself. He is afraid of his own ineffectiveness and grows suspicious of other people whose greater competence he regards as a threat. Anxiety then is a diffuse, irrational fear, not directed at an appropriate target and not controlled by self-insight. Like a grease spot, it has spread throughout the life and stains the individual's social relationships. Because he is far from satisfied in his affiliative needs, he may become compulsive - and over-rejective toward others. But these compulsive social relationships create further anxieties, and the vicious circle is intensified."⁵⁷

PSY 096

OUTLETS FOR ANXIETY

"Existentialists tell us that anxiety is basic in every life. It is more prominent than aggression because the very conditions of human existence are mysterious and dreadful, though they are not always frustrating. It is for this reason that fear becomes even more readily diffused and character-conditioned than does aggression.

Anxiety, however, is like aggression in that people tend to be ashamed of it. Our ethical codes place a premium on

courage and self-reliance. Pride and self-respect lead us to mask our anxiety. While we repress it in part, we also give it a displaced outlet - upon socially sanctioned sources of fear. Some people suffer an almost hysterical fear of "communists" in our midst. It is a socially allowable phobia. The same people would not be respected if they admitted the real source of much of their anxiety, which lies in personal inadequacy and dread of life.

There may, of course, be elements of realistic fear mingled with displaced fear. Communists in our midst do constitute a menace, though to a lesser degree than many demagogues and phobiacs would have us believe. A remarkable shift in public opinion came after Japan was defeated. Previously, the animosity knew no bounds. Not only was the nation considered sly and subhuman, but even loyal Japanese-American were herded into "relocation" camps. In 1943 the Russians were loved, the Japanese feared. Five years later the situation had more or less reversed itself. This shift demonstrates that a core of realism may be present even in conditions where much displacement is also taking place. Men are rational enough to prefer plausible targets for their fears if they are available.

So far as our knowledge now extends, it seems probable that the principle source of character-conditioned anxiety comes from a bad start in early life."⁵⁸

"It is not until adolescence that the child is able to handle ethnic categories in a culturally approved way, and only then that his prejudices can be said to be fashioned in the adult form.

What is missing from this account is an adequate picture of the continual integrating and organizing activity that occurs from the very outset of the learning process. Above all else the human mind is an organizing agent. A child's ethnic attitudes gradually form coherent units within his personality, and become integrated into its very texture.

Although integrating and organizing are continually present, it seems that these activities are particularly important in puberty. The reason is that up to this time a child's prejudices are mostly secondhand. He has learned to parrot the view of his parents or to reflect the ethnocentrism of his immediate culture. Gradually, as the poignant period of adolescence approaches, he finds that his prejudices, like his religion or political views, must become a firsthand fitting to his personality. In order to become an adult, with status and privileges, he fashions his social attitudes into their mature form - appropriate to his own ego."⁵⁹

" . . . after a period of total rejection, a stage of differentiation sets in. The prejudices grow less totalized. Escape clauses are written into the attitudes in order to make it more rational and more acceptable to the individual. One says, "Some of my best friends are Jews." Or, "I am not prejudiced against Negroes - I always loved my black Mammy." The child who is first learning adult categories of rejection is not able to make such gracious exceptions. It takes him the first six to eight years of his life to learn total rejection, and another six years or so to modify it. The actual adult creed in his culture is complex indeed. It allows for (and in many ways encourages) ethnocentrism. At the same time, one must give lip service to democracy and equality, or at least ascribe some good qualities to the minority group and somehow plausibly justify the remaining disapproval that one expresses. It takes the child well into adolescence to learn the peculiar double-talk appropriate to prejudice in a democracy.

Around the age of eight, children often talk in a highly prejudiced manner. They have learned their categories and their totalized rejection. But the rejection is chiefly verbal. While they may damn the Jews, the wops, the Catholics, they may still behave in a relatively democratic manner. They may play with them even while they talk against them. The "total rejection" is chiefly a verbal matter.

Now when the teaching of the school take effect, the child learns a new verbal norm; he must talk democratically. He must profess to regard all races and creeds as equal. Hence, by the age of 12, we may find verbal acceptance, but behavioral rejection. By this age the prejudices have finally affected conduct, even while the verbal, democratic norms are beginning to take effect.

The paradox, then, is that younger children may talk undemocratically, but behave democratically, whereas children in puberty may talk (at least in school) democratically but behave with true prejudice. By the age of 15, considerable skill is shown in imitating the adult pattern. Prejudiced talk and democratic talk are reserved for appropriate occasions, and rationalizations are ready for whatever occasions require them. Even conduct is varied according to circumstances. One may be friendly with a Negro in the kitchen, but hostile to a Negro who comes to the front door. Double-dealing, like double-talk, is hard to learn. It takes the entire period of childhood and much of adolescence to master the art of ethnocentrism."⁶⁰

PSY 099

MINORITY HANDLING OF PREJUDICE

"Not all minority group members - even those of the most persecuted groups - display visible ego defenses. If they do so, an interesting question arises as to why an individual takes one rather than another means to protect himself and advance his interests.

. . . . The first includes mechanisms that are essentially aggressive, outgoing, indicating attacks on the source of the difficulty. The second includes more introverted modes. In the first instance the victim blames the outer causes of his handicap; in the second, he tends, if not actually to blame himself, at least to take the responsibility upon himself for adjusting to the situation.

. . . . Every personality is, in fact, a pattern. A single victim of prejudice may display several traits, frequently blending some on the extropunitive side with some on the intropunitive.

To illustrate the point, let us depict a pattern characteristic of many sufferers from discrimination. First of all, they do not regard their marginality as fatal in their pursuit of a wholesome and enjoyable life. Their basic values are human and universal, and they know that many human beings in all groups are fundamentally in agreement with them concerning these values. Therefore, they seek their friends and associates not exclusively from their own minority group, but in many groups where these same values are to be found. When, in other less central regions of that activity, they encounter discrimination and prejudice they react with dignity and understanding. They say in effect, "Everyone has hardships; everyone suffers injustice; my lot, like theirs, calls for courage and perseverance." There develops then a measured competitiveness, an intelligent pursuit of one's goals, including

efforts to reduce discrimination in society and to increase the practice of democracy. There develops a broad compassion for oppressed people whoever they are. In short, sympathy, courage, persistence, and dignity mark such a personality. Some patterns, to be sure, are far less socialized and less mature. But it has been well said that a fully developed personality is one that can handle its suffering without inflicting suffering in return."⁶¹

PSY 100

BLACK MILITARY VOLUNTEERS

"Black men in general, particularly from the low socio-economic groups and particularly from the South, suffer from a low self-esteem because of racism in American society. The black male has always been castrated by the society and has always struggled for a sense of manhood and identity in a white world. Because of the limited opportunities that a racist society allows the black man for achieving manhood, I think many young black men gravitate to the Army to prove they are men by risking their lives in combat. Superior prowess in combat is ready to trade his life for psychological manhood status and self-esteem."⁶²

PSY 101

SELF-INSIGHT OVER PREJUDICE

"Self-insight, however, does not automatically cure prejudice. At best it starts the individual wondering. And unless one questions the truth of his convictions, he certainly

is unlikely to alter them. If he begins to suspect that they are not in conformity with facts, he may then enter a period of conflict. If the dissatisfaction is great enough, he may be driven to a reorganization of belief and attitudes. Self-insight is ordinarily the first, but not in itself a sufficient, step."

"All in all, we are forced to conclude that prejudice in a life is more likely than not to arouse some compunction, at least some of the time. It is almost impossible to integrate it consistently with affiliative needs and humane values."⁶³

PSY 102

DEFENSE MECHANISMS

"One of the tragedies of human development is that many of a person's most self-destructive acts are prompted by a blind, misguided (and subconscious) attempt to protect his sense of self-to preserve or strengthen his self-esteem."⁶⁴

In spite of the fact that emotions are an inescapable part of us, we sometimes go to incredible lengths to escape them. As one psychotherapist explains, "In the practice of therapy I find it necessary to devote a good deal of time to teaching clients the art of describing their own emotions. Virtually everyone encounters considerable difficulty in the initial attempts. They comment on their emotions, they 'explain' their emotions, they 'apologize' for their emotions, they speculate as to the historical origins of their emotions --and, of course, they reproach themselves for their emotions

--but they find it extraordinarily difficult simply to let themselves feel their emotions and then describe what they experience. They have to overcome years of defenses erected to protect them against their inner emotional life.

When the emotions with which they are struggling to make contact are unpleasant or painful, the almost universal impulse is to resist them, to convulse one's body against them--which frequently serves only to intensify them. Just as the driver of a skidding car must resist his impulse to turn the wheel into the skid, in order to regain control, so the person hit by a disturbing emotion must learn the art of going 'with' the emotion, not 'against' it, in order eventually to dissolve it.

If no one ever achieved emotional fulfillment by following his feelings impulsively and uncritically, it must also be realized that no one ever won a battle against his emotions by declaring war on them. 'Nature to be commanded, must be obeyed,' and if men are to achieve an integrated harmony of mind and emotion, they must appreciate the laws of emotional functioning, and respond accordingly. That is the application of reason to the sphere of emotion."⁶⁵

Defense mechanisms are unconscious ways that people use to protect themselves mentally from conflict, anxiety, and needs which have not been satisfied. They are ways of adjusting, but they operate in a manner that avoids reality in some way. Accordingly, defense mechanisms are not necessarily

good. They are hidden from us and may sometimes do us more harm than the problem they deny. Because we use them often, they can make up a large part of our behavior and can strongly affect our feelings of security and well being. Being able to recognize defense mechanisms operating in one's self can be enlightening, and often brings emotions into the open where they can be dealt with honestly and more rationally. Although there are many defense mechanisms, the most common ones are projection, repression, regression, rationalization, displacement, sublimation, and reaction formation.⁶⁶

PSY 103

PROJECTION

Projection is the defense mechanism of attributing your own motives or feelings to someone else. We often use this to hide from ourselves something we feel or want that would make us anxious or would hurt our conscience. By projecting this impulse to others, often in exaggerated form, we find it easier to deal with it in ourselves. For example, a person who feels guilty about his declining church attendance will tell a co-worker, "Gee, no one seems to go to church anymore. I'm amazed at the moral decay in our church."

PSY 104

SCAPEGOATS

"The term scapegoat originated in the famous ritual of the Hebrews, described in the Book of Leviticus (16:20-22). On the Day of Atonement a live goat was chosen by lot. The

high priest, robed in linen garments, laid both his hands on the goat's head, and confessed over it the iniquities of the children of Israel. The sins of the people thus symbolically transferred to the beast, it was taken out into the wilderness and let go. The people felt purged and for the time being, guiltless.

The type of thinking here involved is not uncommon. From earliest times the notion has persisted that guilt and misfortune can be shifted from one man's back to another. Animistic thinking confuses what is mental with what is physical. If a load of wood can be shifted, why not a load of sorrow or a load of guilt?

Nowadays we are likely to label this mental process projection. In other people we see the fear, anger, lust that reside primarily in ourselves. It is not we ourselves who are responsible for our misfortunes, but other people. In our common speech we recognize this failing in such phrases as "whipping-boy," "taking it out on the dog," or "scapegoat."

. . . . 67

PSY 105	<u>DISPLACEMENT</u>
PSY 106	<u>SUBLIMATION</u>
PSY 107	<u>REPRESSION</u>

"When a person represses certain of his thoughts and memories, because he regards them as immoral or humiliating,

he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

When a person represses certain of his emotions, because they threaten his sense of control or conflict with his notion of 'strength' or 'maturity' or 'sophistication,' he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

When a person represses certain of his desires, because he cannot tolerate the anxiety of wondering whether or not he will attain them, an anxiety that makes him feel helpless and ineffectual, he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

When a person represses certain aspects of his personality which seem incompatible with the standards of his 'significant others,' because he has tied his sense of personal worth to the approval of those 'others,' he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

When a person represses certain of his legitimate needs, because their frustration leaves him feeling impotent and defeated, he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

When a person represses his capacity for spontaneity and self-assertiveness, because he wants to be certain that his responses always conform to the 'moral ideals' laid down by his particular authorities, he disowns a part of himself--in the name of protecting his self-esteem.

Do such attempts succeed? They do not. Self-esteem cannot be built on a foundation of self-alienation. The consequences of such attempts is the sabotaging of one's ability to enjoy life, the inner sense of some nameless fraudulence and self-betrayal, the anxious need always to be on guard against dark, frightening forces which might erupt from the limbo of one's denied self to threaten the structure of one's existence--and the subversion of one's self-esteem."⁶⁸

PSY 108

REPRESSION AS A CONFLICT DEFENSE

"In almost every community where the subject of prejudice or discrimination is brought up, the first response is "Here we have no problem."

The assertion is also a device for keeping unwelcome issues successfully repressed. To deny that a problem exists is to forestall the turmoil it could cause, both in the community and in the individual, if it were faced.

Let us take the point of view of the individual. To admit prejudice is to accuse oneself of being both irrational and unethical. No one wants to be at odds with his own conscience. Man has to live with himself. He finds it uncomfortable to admit that malintegration exists within his character. It is not surprising, then, to hear the statement, 'I have no prejudices,' even when an outsider sees them bristling.

In most instances the repressers do not recognize their prejudices, and do not view their frame of mind as antidemocratic (and therefore in conflict with their own values). Proof comes from the fact that most antidemocratic movements are dressed up with wholly democratic symbolism: The Cross and the Flag; Social Justice; Golden Rule; Liberation; and the like. By affirming verbally the American creed the inconsistency of one's actual conduct is more successfully repressed.

Often a prejudiced remark starts with the disarming prelude, 'I am not prejudiced, but' or, 'Jews have as much right as anybody, but' Such initial lip service to the democratic creed seems to atone for all the bias that follows. Psychologically, the mechanism is one of affirming virtue so that the subsequent lapses will pass unnoticed."⁶⁹

PSY 109	<u>RATIONALIZATION</u>
PSY 110	<u>FIXATION</u>
PSY 111	<u>REACTION FORMATION</u>
PSY 112	<u>COMPENSATION</u>
PSY 113	<u>DENIAL</u>
PSY 114	<u>IDENTIFICATION</u>
PSY 115	<u>MENTAL DISORDER</u>

PSY 116	<u>TABLE OF MENTAL DISORDERS</u> ⁷⁰
PSY 117	<u>MENTAL RETARDATION</u>
PSY 118	<u>PSYCHOSES</u>
PSY 119	<u>NEUROSES</u>
PSY 120	<u>PERSONALITY DISORDERS</u>
PSY 121	<u>TRANSIENT SITUATIONAL DISTURBANCES</u>
PSY 122	<u>PSYCHOTHERAPY</u>
PSY 123	<u>PSYCHOANALYSIS</u>
PSY 124	<u>INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY</u>
PSY 125	<u>WORKER EFFICIENCY</u>
PSY 126	<u>MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP</u>
PSY 127	<u>CONSUMER BEHAVIOR</u>
PSY 128	<u>THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LAUGHTER AND HUMOR</u>

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY CONCEPTS

SP 001

SOCIAL VIEWS

SP 002

ROLES

"A given individual must, in the course of even a few hours, play many different roles. Some of these roles may conflict with one another, both in their execution and in the feelings which accompany them.

A given individual may be submissive to an authoritarian boss and at the same time be a leader in the social organization of some part of our society at large. A college student may, from time to time, play the role of an independent adult, of a devoted and obedient son, of a worker on a semi-skilled job (when he drives a school bus, for example), and of a student. One role may demand behavior that is incompatible with that demanded by another.

Yet, society likes to demand consistency in the roles we play. Perhaps that is because we think about one another in oversimplified ways, and conflicting roles played by the same individual complicate such thinking. The minister, the judge, and the banker are expected to be more circumspect in their behavior than the automobile salesman, the advertising executive, or the architect. People are sometimes surprised to hear colloquial speech from the mouth of the minister, or to see the banker at the race track. Society, then, exerts a pressure towards consistency, a pressure that may increase the feelings of conflict produced by multiple roles

The playing of roles is seldom a deliberate putting on of a mask. We play the roles demanded of us by experience with ease and without thought. It is only when we are expected to take some new part on the world's stage that we feel uncomfortable or strange. We may also become aware of the roles we take on when we are faced with the alternative of choosing between two incompatible roles.

One does not ask a man: 'Why do you prefer pleasure to pain?' Nor does one ask him: 'Why do you prefer a state of control to a state of helplessness?' It is through these two sets of experiences that man first acquires preferences, i.e., values.

A man may choose, as a consequence of his errors and/or evasions, to pursue pleasure by means of values that in fact can result only in pain; and he can pursue a sense of efficacy by means of values that can only render him impotent. But the value of pleasure and the disvalue of pain, as well as the value of efficacy and the disvalue of helplessness, remain the psychological base of the phenomenon of valuation.

A man's values are the product of the thinking he has done or has failed to do. Values can be a manifestation of rationality and mental health or of irrationality and neurosis. They can be an expression of psychological maturity or of arrested development. They can grow out of self-confidence and benevolence or out of self-doubt and fear. They can be motivated by the desire to achieve happiness or by the desire

to minimize pain. They can be borne out of the desire to use one's mind or the desire to escape it. They can be acquired independently and by deliberation or they can be uncritically absorbed from other men by, in effect, a process of osmosis. They can be held consciously and explicitly or subconsciously and implicitly. They can be consistent or they can be contradictory. They can further a man's life or they can endanger it. These are the alternatives possible to a being of volitional consciousness."¹

SP 003	<u>CULTURAL ROLES</u>
SP 004	<u>SEX ROLES</u>
SP 005	<u>RACIAL ROLES</u>
SP 006	<u>MULTIPLE ROLES</u>
SP 007	<u>ROLE CONFLICT</u>
SP 008	<u>GOFFMAN'S VIEW</u>
SP 009	<u>PERSONAL DISTANCE</u>

Personal distance, or interpersonal space, is the physical distance people keep between themselves during social interaction. Many people are not aware of the importance of physical distance and its effect on the impressions people

form. For example, if you are speaking to an acquaintance standing next to you and you move half again as close to him as you normally would, he will probably move back and become uncomfortable or irritated.

This phenomenon is of particular concern in an intercultural setting where people of different cultures must interact. The physical bubble of privacy seems to be generally a cultural norm. Within a culture, everyone is comfortable because they all use the same personal distance. But, for example, if an Italian walks up to an Englishman, he tends to stand much closer than the Englishman desires him to. The Italian thinks the Englishman is aloof and unfriendly; while the Englishman thinks the Italian is rude and presumptuous. Probably both impressions are incorrect. This phenomenon also holds in such situations as the placement of tables and chairs in a restaurant. When a person enters a public place, his feeling of personal distance will dictate which place he chooses to stand, sit or otherwise place himself relative to other people.

SP 010

PREJUDICE

SP 011

COVERT DISCRIMINATION

"Where clear conflict exists, with law and conscience on the one side, and with custom and prejudice on the other, discrimination is practiced chiefly in covert and indirect

ways, and not primarily in face-to-face situations where embarrassment would result."²

SP 012

VERBAL LABELS IN PREJUDICE

"Most individuals rebel at being labeled, especially if the label is uncomplimentary. Very few are willing to be called fascistic, socialistic, or anti-Semitic. Unsavory labels may apply to others; but not to us

When symbols provoke strong emotions they are sometimes regarded no longer as symbols but as actual things. The expressions "son of a bitch" and "liar" are in our culture frequently regarded as "fighting words." Softer and more subtle expressions of contempt may be accepted. But in these particular cases, the epithet itself must be "taken back." We certainly do not change our opponent's attitude by making him take back a word, but it seems somehow important that the word itself be eradicated

Such naivete in confusing language with reality is hard to comprehend unless we recall that word-magic plays an appreciable part in human thinking

This tendency to reify words underscores the close cohesion that exists between category and symbol. Just the mention of "communist," "Negro," "Jew," "England," "Democrats," will send some people into a panic of fear or a frenzy of anger. Who can say whether it is the word or the thing that annoys them? The label is an intrinsic part of any

monopolistic category. Hence to liberate a person from ethnic or political prejudice it is necessary at the same time to liberate him from word fetishism. This fact is well known to students of general semantics who tell us that prejudice is due in large part to verbal realism and to symbol phobia."³

"The course of prejudice in a life seldom runs smoothly. For prejudice attitudes are almost certain to collide with deep-seated values that are often equally or more central to the personality. The influence of the school may contradict the influence of the home. The teachings of religion may challenge social stratification. Integration of such opposing forces within a single life is hard to achieve."⁴

"Defeated intellectually, prejudice lingers emotionally."⁵

"Consider: in universities and other centers of intellect a sociologist, social psychologist, or psychiatrist who studies crime is usually called a criminologist; he is never called a criminal. Similarly, a lawyer who chooses to practice criminal rather than civil law is called a criminal lawyer and not a criminal. Certainly no one dares to suggest that the longer criminologists study crime or criminal lawyers defend criminals, the greater will be the likelihood that they will absorb the attributes of the people they study or defend. And no one says that they want lots of crime so that they can get more contracts, consultations, and clients.

Yet, the same social critic who can remain rather unemotional about criminologists, criminal lawyers, crime, and even criminals, often quickly exhibits great emotional bias against the military practitioner."⁶

SP 015

NEED FOR PRESTIGE

"In persons in whom the craving for prestige is uppermost, hostility usually takes the form of a desire to humiliate others."⁷

SP 016

STEREOTYPES

"Whether favorable or unfavorable, a stereotype is an exaggerated belief associated with a category. Its function is to justify (rationalize) our conduct in relation to that category."

"A stereotype is not identical with a category; it is rather a fixed idea that accompanies the category."⁸

Many stereotypes exist in and about the Navy. For example, many in the civilian populace think all sailors are drunks and hell raisers. We all hear someone say boatswains mate and we picture a tough, tatooed, not-too-bright salt, with many mast cases in his record. Ensigns are dumb, XO's are mean and sadistic, blacks are troublemakers, and Chiefs are lazy and pot-bellied. Stereotypes are sometimes accurate, but usually are not.

SP 017

STEREOTYPING

Stereotyping is an erroneous method of categorizing a person from impressions received. Instead of recognizing the unique, individual differences the person has, we place him into a specific stereotype (pothead, Jew, lifer) for which we

have preconceived beliefs and expectations. Although stereotyping may be natural, it should be resisted. Everyone is different and cannot be described or anticipated with universal generalities.

There are two types of stereotypes, personal and social.

Personal stereotypes are those which we form based upon our own set of experiences. Social stereotypes are those gained from others in our social group, and which are common generalizations of other groups. Both are inaccurate where they fail to recognize individuality.

SP 018 INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION

SP 019 ROMANTIC LOVE⁹

SP 020 FRIENDSHIP AND HUMAN CONTACT

SP 021 PHYSICAL APPEARANCE

SP 022 PROXIMITY

SP 023 SIMILARITY

SP 024 APPROVAL

SP 025 PERSONALITY

SP 026 DISSATISFACTION IN HUMAN RELATIONS

Perhaps the most perplexing problem in the entire field of human relations is this: why do so relatively few of our

contacts with other people fit in with, and satisfy, our predominating affiliative needs, and why do so many find their way into sentiments of hatred and hostility? Why are loyalties and loves so few and restricted, when at bottom human beings feel that they can never love or be loved enough?

The answer to this riddle seems to lie in three directions. One concerns the amount of frustration and the hardness of living that beset people. Because of severe frustrations it is easy to fuse one's recurring anger into rationalized hatreds. In order to avoid hurt and achieve at least an island of security it is safer to exclude than to include.

A second explanation has to do with the learning process. We have seen in previous chapters that children brought up in a rejective home, exposed to ready-made prejudices, will scarcely be in a position to develop a trustful or affiliative outlook upon social relationships. Having received little affection, they are not in a position to give it.

Finally, there is a kind of economy in adopting an exclusionist approach to human relations. ... By taking a negative view of great groups of mankind, we somehow make life simpler. For example, if I reject all foreigners as a category, I don't have to bother with them - except to keep them out of my country. If I can ticket, then, all Negroes as comprising an inferior and objectionable race, I conveniently dispose of a tenth of my fellow citizens.¹⁰

SP 027

THE GROUND OF OTHERS

"This principle of the ground in human learning is important. We do not need to postulate a "gregarious instinct" to explain why people like to be with people: they have simply found people lock-stitched into the very fabric of their existence. Since they affirm their own existence as good, they will affirm social living as good. Nor do we need to postulate a "consciousness of kind" to explain why people adhere to their own families, clans, ethnic groups. The self could not be itself without them."¹¹

SP 028

GROUPS

SP 029

TYPES OF GROUPS

SP 030

SOCIAL GROUPS

SP 031

TASK GROUPS

SP 032

FORMAL GROUPS

SP 033

SEMIFORMAL GROUPS

SP 034

INFORMAL GROUPS

SP 035

REFERENCE GROUPS¹²

SP 036

IN-GROUPS

SP 037

VERBALLY DEFINED IN-GROUPS

"Oddly enough, it is not necessary for the individual to have direct acquaintance with all his in-groups. To be sure, he usually knows the members of his immediate family. (An orphan, however, may be passionately attached to parents he has never seen.) Some groups, such as clubs, schools, neighborhoods, are known through personal contacts. No one can have direct acquaintance with his race as a whole, nor with all his lodge brothers or co-religionists. The young child may sit enthralled while he hears of the exploits of the great grandfather whose role as a sea-captain, a frontiersman, or nobleman sets a tradition with which the child identifies himself. The words he hears provide him just as authentic a ground for his life as do his daily experiences. By symbols one learns family traditions, patriotism and racial pride. Thus in-groups that are only verbally defined may be nonetheless firmly knit."¹³

SP 038

OUT-GROUPS

SP 039

JEALOUSY OF GROUPS

"A person who is envious of another knows that he is envious. This much of the emotional situation is not walled off from consciousness. But simple jealousy immediately starts up some strange attendant mental operations.

Take the attitude of front-line troops in the Second World War. They envied troops who had less dangerous jobs - an assignment to the quartermaster's corps, at headquarters, or elsewhere behind the lines. Denied these privileges, they frequently developed two outlooks that might be called incipient prejudice. (1) They grew resentful of troops who were not in combat and became critical of all rear echelons. About half of the front-line soldiers openly admitted this feeling of resentment, although it was perfectly obvious that no soldier in the rear was responsible for the danger or discomfort of the men in the line. From this fact we learn that one may feel resentment against wholly innocent people who happen to enjoy more privileges than we, and at the same time one may give way to an illogical tendency to blame them for one's own deprivation. They are seen as causes for one's discomforts even though they are not. This tendency we shall discuss further under complementary projection. (2) At the same time, the front-line troops developed a feeling of superiority. Even though they wished to change places with the secure troops, they felt greatly superior to them. Intense in-group esteem became a way of compensating for a lack. Here we see the reciprocal relation between in-group loyalty and out-group scorn. They are two sides of the same coin.

Jealousy, of course, does not always lead to prejudice, although in this case we clearly have an incipient prejudice that would no doubt have become set if there had been no

rotation of troops. Our point is simply that in states of jealousy we are likely to encounter in a fairly elementary form the projective mechanism at work. Envy leads one to think ill of someone else - more ill than the situation warrants."¹⁴

SP 040

THE OUT-GROUP "THEY"

"Until we label an out-group it does not clearly exist in our minds. Take the curiously vague situation that we often meet when a person wishes to locate responsibility on the shoulders of some out-group whose nature he cannot specify. In such a case he usually employs the pronoun "they" without an antecedent. "Why don't they make these sidewalks wider?" "I hear they are going to build a factory in this town and hire a lot of foreigners." "I won't pay this tax bill; they can just whistle for their money." If asked "who?" the speaker is likely to grow confused and embarrassed. The common use of the orphaned pronoun "they" teaches us that people often want and need to designate out-groups (usually for the purpose of venting hostility) even when they have no clear conception of the out-group in question. And so long as the target of wrath remains vague and ill-defined specific prejudice cannot crystallize around it. To have enemies we need labels."¹⁵

"Anger is a transitory emotional state, aroused by thwarting some on-going activity. Since it is aroused at a given time by an identifiable stimulus, it leads to impulses to attack the source of the frustrations directly and to inflict injury upon this source.

Long ago Aristotle pointed out that anger differed from hatred in that anger is customarily felt toward individuals only, whereas hatred may be felt toward whole classes of people. He observed, too, that a person who gives way to anger is often sorry for his outburst and pities the object of his attack, but in expressing hatred, repentance seldom follows. Hatred is more deep-rooted, and constantly 'desires the extinction of the object of hate.'

To put the matter another way, we may say that anger is an emotion, whereas hatred must be classified as a sentiment - an enduring organization of aggressive impulses toward a person or toward a class of persons. Since it is composed of habitual bitter feeling and accusatory thought, it constitutes a stubborn structure in the mental-emotional life of the individual. And since it makes for social disruption, and is condemned by religion, it has a strong ethical tinge, though the hater usually manages to avoid conflict about the matter. By its very nature hatred is extropunitive, which means that the hater is sure that the fault lies in the object of his hate. So long as he

believes this he will not feel guilty for his uncharitable state of mind.

There is a good reason why out-groups are often chosen as the object of hate and aggression rather than individuals. One human being is, after all, pretty much like another - like oneself. One can scarcely help but sympathize with the victim. To attack him would be to arouse some pain in ourselves. Our own "body image" would be involved, for his body is like our own body. But there is no body image of a group. It is more abstract, more impersonal."¹⁶

SP 042 CAUSAL CONTACT vs TRUE ACQUAINTANCE

"Suppose that on the street or in a store one sees a visible out-group member. By the association of ideas, there is likely to come to mind a recollection of rumor, hearsay, tradition, or stereotype by which this out-group is known. Theoretically, even superficial contact we make with an out-group member could by the "law of frequency" strengthen the adverse mental associations that we have. What is more, we are sensitized to perceive signs that will confirm our stereotypes. From a large number of Negroes in a subway we may select the one who is misbehaving for our attention and disapproval. The dozen or more well-behaved Negroes are overlooked, simply because prejudice screens, and interprets our perceptions. Casual contact, therefore, permits our thinking about out-groups to remain on an autistic level. We do not effectively communicate with the outsider, nor he with us.

An imaginary instance will illustrate the process. An Irishman and a Jew encounter each other in casual contact, perhaps in a small business transaction. Neither has, in fact, any initial animosity toward the other. But the Irishman thinks, "Ah, a Jew; perhaps he'll skin me; I'll be careful." The Jew thinks, "Probably a Mick; they hate the Jews; he'd like to insult me." With such an inauspicious start both men are likely to be evasive, distrustful, and cool. Both are motivated to some extent by fear - though in fact neither has any realistic basis for distrusting the other. By the time they part the offishness each has shown has confirmed the other's suspicion. The casual contact has left matters worse than before.

In contrast to casual contacts, most studies show that true acquaintance lessens prejudice."¹⁷

SP 043

PROPERTIES OF GROUPS

SP 044

COHESIVENESS

SP 045

NORMS

"A belief which a group of people act as if they hold, so that, if any person exhibits behavior which differs from the norm, the group will act to make the deviant person conform."¹⁸

SP 046

SANCTIONS IN THE MILITARY

"Military organizations, because their actions center on violence in situations of extreme crisis, reserve the right to exercise drastic sanctions against their personnel. But extreme and drastic sanctions are compatible with leadership which makes use of techniques of group consensus. The Nazi army was an effective armed force, not because of ideological indoctrination, but because its non-commissioned and commissioned officers were competent leaders who were able, due to their technical ability and demonstrated concern for their men, to develop cohesive social relations."¹⁹

SP 047

OBJECTIVES

SP 048

LEADERSHIP

SP 049

GROUP ACTION

SP 050

SELF-PERPETUATION

SP 051

EFFECT OF THE GROUP ON MEMBERS

SP 052

CONFORMITY

SP 053

MODIFY PERSONAL GOALS

SP 054

DEVELOPS INTERPERSONAL EXPERIENCE

SP 055

SENSITIVITY

SP 056

EMPATHY

SP 057.

ADAPTATION

SP 058

MOLDS SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BELIEFS

SP 059

PEER PRESSURE

SP 060

CREATES SUBCULTURES

SP 061

SUM OF HIS GROUPS

SP 062

OPINIONS

"An opinion is "a verbal expression of some belief, attitude, or value."²⁰

"Members of a group typically perceive the group's opinion to be closer to their own opinions than it actually is. By virtue of the informality in the operations of most small groups, issues may be kept from being put to a clear test. People advance their opinions; and even though there may be an immediate reaction, it is difficult for them at times to estimate the degree to which they can count on firm support. In consequence, the more frequent the interaction among the members of a group, the more correctly they can judge the opinion of the group, i.e., the more predictable the group's behavior becomes to them and hence the more reliable as a guide to proper behavior.

People in a group tend to agree with the opinions of people they like (i.e., they judge the opinion by judging the

advocate); and they tend to think that the people they like agree with them and that those they dislike do not."²¹

SP 063 EFFECT OF THE MEMBER ON THE GROUP

SP 064 THE LEADER

SP 065 FORM SPLINTER GROUPS

SP 066 CHANGE IN GROUP GOALS

SP 067 COHESIVENESS

SP 068 GIVES STATUS

SP 069 SUM OF ITS MEMBERS

SP 070 THE DEVIANT AND THE ISOLATE

SP 071 CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTION

SP 072 PACIFISM

SP 073 DISSENT

SP 074 GROUP LEADERSHIP

SP 075 QUALITIES

SP 076 SELF ESTEEM

SP 077 CHARISMA

SP 078 MASS RAPPORT

SP 079	<u>FATHER IMAGE</u>
SP 080	<u>GOAL IDENTIFICATION</u>
SP 081	<u>DRIVE FOR POWER</u>
SP 082	<u>INVERTED LEADERSHIP</u>
SP 083	<u>RESPONSIBILITIES</u>
SP 084	<u>NAGGING A WORKER</u>

If you nag a subordinate about his duties you deny him self-esteem. He will tend to transfer the blame for his mal-performance to you, thinking to himself that your nagging is what is preventing him from doing better.²²

SP 085	<u>FOLLOWERSHIP</u>
SP 086	<u>NEED FOR SECURITY</u>
SP 087	<u>"INNER AND OUTER DIRECTED"</u>
SP 088	<u>SUBLEADERSHIP</u>
SP 089	<u>MAINTENANCE' NEEDS</u>
SP 090	<u>IDENTIFICATION WITH OUTPUT</u>
SP 091	<u>THE FRONT LINE SOLDIER</u>
SP 092	<u>THE IMPERSONAL OBSERVER</u>
SP 093	<u>THE MOSAIC DECAD</u>

SP 094

GROUP PERFORMANCE

SP 095

SYNERGISM

The concept of synergy is a new one to many people. Synergy occurs when people work together cooperatively in such a way that the result they produce is greater than the sum of their individual contributions alone. It can be thought of as "synchronized energy." Often the results are unforeseeable. Not all teamwork causes a synergistic result, but all such results require teamwork.

For many, knowledge of the possibility of a synergistic result changes their attitude toward working with other people. The change of sparking an outcome which could not have been attained alone can cause enthusiasm.²³

SP 096

ZEIGARNIK EFFECT

It has been noted that some people seem to have a strong innate compulsion to complete jobs or to achieve results. This propensity is called the "Zeigarnik Effect." For others, the activity leading toward job completion might offer as much or more reward. Some psychologists feel that organizations employing participative management programs and a result orientation must have people in the organization with a high Zeigarnik Effect. They are the doers who will persevere to accomplish the organization's goals.²⁴

SP 097

IDEOLOGY AND SYMBOLS

SP 098

LOYALTIES

"Happiness (i.e., "reward") is not then the only reason for our loyalties. Few of our group memberships seem to be sustained by the pleasures they provide - an exception perhaps being our recreational memberships. And it takes a major unhappiness, a prolonged and bitter experience, to drive us away from loyalties once formed. And sometimes no amount of punishment can make us repudiate our loyalty."²⁵

SP 099

DEVELOPING IN-GROUP LOYALTIES

"The proverb familiarity breeds contempt contains considerably less than a half-truth. While we sometimes do become bored with our daily routine of living and with some of our customary companions, yet the very values that sustain our lives depend for their force upon their familiarity. What is more, what is familiar tends to become a value. We come to like the style of cooking, the customs, the people, we have grown up with.

Psychologically, the crux of the matter is that the familiar provides the indispensable basis of our existence. Since existence is good, its accompanying groundwork seems good and desirable. A child's parents, neighborhood, region, nation are given to him - so too his relation, race, and social traditions. To him all these affiliations are taken for

granted. Since he is part of them, and they are part of him, they are good.

As early as the age of five, a child is capable of understanding that he is a member of various groups. He is capable, for example, of a sense of ethnic identification. Until he is nine or ten he will not be able to understand just what his membership signifies - how, for example, Jews differ from gentiles, or Quakers from Methodists, but he does not wait for this understanding before he develops fierce in-group loyalties."²⁶

SP 100	<u>PARTICIPATION</u>
SP 101	<u>COORDINATION</u>
SP 102	<u>EFFECTIVENESS</u>
SP 103	<u>THE FAMILY GROUP</u>
SP 104	<u>LEADERSHIP</u>
SP 105	<u>FUNCTIONS</u>
SP 106	<u>FAMILIAL BONDS</u>
SP 107	<u>PROJECTION TO SCAPEGOATS</u>

"Projection ... solves no basic problems. It is merely a temporary, self-restorative trick. Why nature invented so maladaptive a mechanism is far from clear. It is essentially

a neurotic device, and does not fundamentally relieve the sufferer's sense of guilt or establish a lasting self-respect. The hated scapegoat is merely a disguise for persistent and unrecognized self-hatred. A vicious circle is established. The more the sufferer hates himself, the more he hates the scapegoat. But the more he hates the scapegoat, the less sure he is of his logic and his innocence; hence the more guilt he has to project."²⁷

SP 108 DEVIANCE

SP 109 SANCTIONS

SP 110 THE GENERATION GAP

SP 111 THE ELDER ROLE

It is just possible that many older people either cannot or will not change their basic values and attitudes, even in the face of a rational reason to do so. It is also possible that the generation gap is a sort of "trip" for older people. They either enjoy the attention it draws to them, or gain an escape from the need to change by adopting a role of elder which is defined as properly rigid.

SP 112 CHILD REARING

"Take the case of an authoritarian family atmosphere. The child who is harshly disciplined, never allowed to pit his will against his parents', can scarcely help perceive existence as a threatening thing. Life, he is forced to assume, is based not on tolerant acceptance, but on a power relationship. Only a hierarchical view of human relationships will satisfy this root quality of his experience. As a result he is likely to perceive all his acquaintanceships in terms of a pecking order. He sees that he stands higher than some, lower than others. How can he help but arrange his life according to the only model he knows?"²⁸

" ... there is no society on earth where the children are not thought to belong to the ethnic and religious group of their parents. By virtue of kinship, the child is expected to take on the prejudices of his parents, also to become the victim of whatever prejudice is directed against his parents.

It is because of this fact that prejudice looks as though it were inherited, linked somehow to biological descent. Since children are identical with their parents in respect to memberships, we must expect ethnic attitudes to be handed down from parent to child. So universal and automatic is it that somehow heredity seems to be involved.

Actually, the course of transmission is one of teaching and learning, not heredity. As we have seen, parents sometimes deliberately inculcate ethnocentrism, but more often they are unaware of doing so.

A young child is likely to regard his parents as omnipotent (for they seem to be able to do all things that the child fumbles with and fails to do). Why should not their judgments be his judgments?"²⁸

"In my earliest childhood I recall that I felt strong antagonism toward anyone who opposed the views and feelings of my parents. They would often talk about such people at the supper table. I think it was the confident tone of voice in which my parents aired their convictions and condemned their opponents that affected me, and assured me of their omnipotent wisdom."²⁹

"If we take a Darwinian view of the matter, we may say that all this conforming has "survival value." The young child is helpless unless, in matters of basic value, he strings along with his parents. His only possible pattern for survival is their pattern. If their design for living is tolerant, so too is his; if they are hostile toward certain groups, so too is he.

We must not imply that the young child is consciously aware of his imitateness. Certainly he does not say to himself, 'I must conform to my family ways in order to survive.' Psychologically there are more subtle ways of acquiring family attitudes.

The process most often named in this connection is identification. The term is broad and ill-defined, but it serves to convey the sense of emotional merging of oneself with others. One form of identification is indistinguishable from love and affection. A child who loves his parents will readily become depersonalized from himself and 'repersonalize' in them. Their signs of feeling are eagerly scanned and mirrored in the child, who is alert to all cues coming from them. Whether in play or in seriousness, the parental model is acted out. The young son, firmly attached to his father, mimics him from morning until night. Not only are the outer acts cues for mimicry, but so too the thoughts expressed - including the hostilities and rejections.

It is almost impossible to describe the subtlety of the process involved. Learning through identification seems basically to involve a type of muscle strain or postural imitation. Supposing the child, hypersensitive to parental cues, senses a tightness or rigidity when his parents are talking about the Italian family that has moved in next door. In the very act of perceiving these parental cues, the child himself grows tight and rigid. (His perceptions tend to take a motor form - acting out what he perceives.) This strain in the child becomes conditioned by the words his parents are speaking. After this associated experience, he may tend, ever so slightly, to feel a tenseness (an incipient anxiety) whenever he hears (or thinks) of Italians. The process is infinitely subtle.

It is not only affection for the parent that may lead to identification. Even in a family where power is dominant over love, the child has no other model for strength, for success in life, than his parents. By imitating their conduct and mirroring their attitudes, he often can gain approval and reward from the parent. Even if reward is not forthcoming, he can, as it were, gain assurance by simulating their adulthood. Strutting, scolding, hating - like his father - makes the youngster feel grown-up.

One of the areas where identification may most easily take place is that of social values and attitudes. The child has none of his own to start with. Topics that are beyond his comprehension leave him no alternative but to absorb the pronouncements of others. Sometimes a child who confronts a social issue for the first time will ask his parents what attitude he should hold. Thus he may say, 'Daddy, what are we? Are we Jews or gentiles; Protestants or Catholics; Republicans or Democrats?' When told what 'we' are, the child is fully satisfied. From then on, he will accept his membership and the ready-made attitudes that go with it."³⁰

SP 115 BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDE MODIFICATION

SP 116 THE ETHICAL QUESTION

SP 117 COMPLIANCE, IDENTIFICATION, AND
INTERNALIZATION

SP 118

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

SP 119

SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem can be thought of as a person's reputation with himself. It includes self-confidence (How able do I feel?) and self-respect or worth (How worthy am I?). If a person has self-esteem, he feels competent to live. He develops a feeling of being effective in many, many parts of his life. He develops a principle of life that makes him face life squarely saying "I can."

Self-esteem must be understood by leaders and supervisors because they deal with people, and because all people must have their self-esteem nurtured constantly. People tend to seek self-esteem so much that they will do almost anything to get or keep it. If a person finds something he can do well, he sometimes will do only that, and will avoid doing anything else, for fear of losing his self-esteem. People who have lost their self-esteem or who are having trouble keeping it will often do amazing, uncharacteristic things, and will spend most of their time trying to get it back.

To nurture self-esteem in someone, particularly in children, convey to them that the human enterprise is worthwhile. Expose them to people who are problem solvers rather than problem makers. Association predominantly with problem makers gives a negative outlook on life. If people look up to you, don't give them the impression that you can't handle

problems. They will think that if you can't solve them, then they certainly can't. The world will seem unsolvable. If you react to problems with anger, rage or by chewing everyone out, you teach your followers that this is the way to solve problems, and they will lose self-esteem. Reason vice rage is the problem solving method used by people with self-esteem. In a problem solving situation, self-esteem is best nurtured in a follower by teaching him how to use reason to solve the problem rather than giving him a solution. Many supervisors won't let subordinates make their own solutions, but insist that they adopt those made by the supervisor. Often that solution is old-fashioned or the wrong solution for that subordinate.

Every leader should consider the manner in which he relates with his followers, asking himself if he is engendering self-esteem in them or taking it away.³¹

SP 120 UNFREEZING, CHANGING, REFREEZING

SP 121 IDENTIFICATION AND SCANNING

SP 122 CREDIBILITY

SP 123 PERSONAL CHANGE

SP 124 SITUATIONAL CHANGE

SP 125 COMMITMENT

In any interaction between individuals, the relative status of the two is the relative position or rank they hold based upon some mutually known and respected social criterion. There are many different criteria within which people can have status. Examples are age, military rank, wealth, sex, athletic ability, education, height, talent, beauty, race, fame, professional accomplishments, reputation, and the number of campaign ribbons on your chest. Most people simultaneously have a different status with respect to many various social criteria. The usual tendency is to emphasize the social situation which provides the highest status. Status congruence exists when a person holds the same status ranking in the eyes of his friends in all of his meaningful social situations. This is a reward worth seeking and keeping, because the person's position is secure and his interaction with his friends and associates has one less friction to stand in the way of the harmony people seek. A person who has gained status congruence will behave in such a fashion as to maintain it.³²

Anger is an emotional reaction to frustration or dislike, and is characterized by belligerence and some form of aggression or the threat of aggression. In general, it is unwise to suppress strong anger, because doing so may cause further

emotional difficulties. A frequent source of anger is failure by someone to control the behavior of another. This is not to say that attempting to control behavior is necessarily wrong, but getting angry when people don't change is often used as a tool to try to make them change. What is worse is that it works so often that people tend to get spoiled by its success. They control behaviors only by anger. This tendency is very natural because it is familiar to most of us from our home life. Parents easily seem to fall into the trap of using anger to control their children. As a result, children grow up having learned the same method. Most of us use it at least once in a while. Properly, we should seek never to use anger to control the behavior of others. Every person should be responsible for his own behavior, and for no one else's. As Eric Berne said, we are not here to meet each other's expectations.

When we interact with another person, we decide whether we approve of him or not. Our approval is based on the traits we observe in him. If they are the traits that we consider good, then we accept him. If the traits are bad, it means that they cause us a problem. But we are being hypocritical. We want to do what we want, but we don't want others to have that right. We want them to behave the way we say. More specifically, we don't want them to do things we don't like. Examining some of the specific behaviors in others that bother us, even anger us, often reveals that there is no rational

reason why we should get so upset by them. For example, a person may shout in anger at another person who eats somewhat noisily. The outburst is out of proportion to the situation, he is not letting the other person take sole responsibility for his own behavior, and he has never questioned why noisy eating angers him so much. Many such irrational annoyances probably go back to childhood when "Mommy said". If you ate noisily, Mommy got angry. Without thinking, we use the same values our family did, even though they may no longer make any sense.³³

SP 128

CHANGE AND PREJUDICED PEOPLE

"Prejudiced people demand clear-cut structure in their world, even if it is a narrow and inadequate structure. Where there is no order they impose it. When new solutions are called for, they cling to tried and tested habits. Wherever possible they latch onto what is familiar, safe, simple, definite."

SP 129

MENTAL CATEGORIES AND CHANGE

"For our purposes it is important to understand what happens when categories conflict with evidence. It is a striking fact that in most instances categories are stubborn and resist change. After all, we have fashioned our generalizations as we have because they have worked fairly well. Why change them to accommodate every new bit of evidence? If we are

accustomed to one make of automobile and are satisfied, why admit the merits of another make? To do so would only disturb our satisfactory set of habits.

We selectively admit new evidence to a category if it confirms us in our previous belief. A Scotsman who is penurious delights us because he vindicates our prejudgment. It is pleasant to say, 'I told you so.' But if we find evidence that is contradictory to our preconception, we are likely to grow resistant.

There is a common mental device that permits people to hold to prejudgments even in the face of much contradictory evidence. It is the device of admitting exceptions. 'There are nice Negroes but . . .' or 'Some of my best friends are Jews but' This is a disarming device. By excluding a few favored cases, the negative rubric is kept intact for all other cases. In short, contrary evidence is not admitted and allowed to modify the generalization; rather it is perfunctorily acknowledged but excluded."³⁵

"The most important categories a man has are his own personal set of values. He lives by and for his values. Seldom does he think about them or weigh them; rather he feels, affirms, and defends them. So important are the value categories that evidence and reason are ordinarily forced to conform to them. A farmer in a dusty area of the country listened to a visitor complain against the dust-bowl character of the region. The farmer evaded this attack on the place he loved

by saying, 'You know I like the dust; it sort of purifies the air.' His reasoning was poor, but it served to defend his values.

As partisans of our own way of life we cannot help thinking in a partisan manner. Only a small portion of our reasoning is what psychologists have called 'directed thinking,' that is, controlled exclusively by outer evidence and focused upon the solution of objective problems. Whenever feeling, sentiment, values enter we are prone to engage in 'free', 'wishful', or 'fantasy' thinking. Such partisan thinking is entirely natural, for our job in this world is to live in an integrated way as value-seekers. Prejudgments stemming from these values enable us to do so."³⁶

"Usually, however, there are good reasons for maintaining the grounds of prejudgment intact. It takes less effort to do so. What is more, we find our prejudgments approved and supported by our friends and associates. It would not be polite for a suburbanite to disagree with his neighbors about admitting Jews to the local country club. It is comforting to find that our categories are similar to those of our neighbors, upon whose goodwill our own sense of status depends. How pointless for me to be perpetually reconsidering all my convictions, especially those that form the groundwork of my life, so long as that groundwork is satisfactory to me and to my neighbors."³⁷

"The repetitive and futile way of trying to deal with men of limited ability is by frontal assault. Characteristically, the senior executive attempts to persuade a rigid person to become flexible, to exhort a dependent person to become independent or to cajole an impulsive person into better self-control. Although often the executive knows that people are inflexible or unable to accept responsibility or assume initiative, he tends to act as if he could compel or stimulate them to do so. It is difficult for him to understand that grown men can be frightened and dependent, and that he should act accordingly. Sometimes, in a misguided effort to stimulate the subordinate, he offers the possibility of greater responsibility and more active participation in decision-making. Such gestures are even more threatening to men who are already immobilized. Sometimes he actually promotes such a person in the vain hope that the subordinate will change when he has more responsibility or when he returns from a management development course.

Senior executives usually do not understand that such pressure on a person who is already devoting great effort to controlling or protecting himself (which is what the aberrant behavior means), only increases the intensity of the undesirable behavior. If a man is characteristically rigid, dependent,

or impulsive, he is likely to become more so under increasing stress, which is what the pressure of the boss becomes."³⁸

SP 131 COMMUNICATION

Regardless of age, people will not really communicate with other people who do not deal with them as equals.³⁹

SP 132 BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION WITH FEAR

Behavioral responses which allow an escape from fear are strongly reinforced and quickly learned. For example, a man who fears an important inspection may be frightened whenever he looks at the inspection check-off list, or begins work on the item to be inspected. It brings to mind all of the fearful thoughts concerning the inspection. A method of reducing or avoiding this fear is to turn to something else, a routine task, a bull session, a turn around one's spaces. Doing this reinforces such behavior, and it may become habitual to avoid preparing for the inspection, the very thing that is useful. This process demonstrates one weakness in using fear as a means of behavioral modification or control.

SP 133 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION⁴⁰

SP 134 THE PROCESS

SP 135 INTENT

SP 136 CONTEXT

SP 137	<u>ENCODING</u>
SP 138	<u>TRANSMISSION</u>
SP 139	<u>RECEPTION</u>
SP 140	<u>DECODING</u>
SP 141	<u>RESPONSE</u>
SP 142	<u>FEEDBACK</u>
SP 143	<u>VERBAL COMMUNICATION</u>
SP 144	<u>SPEAKING</u>
SP 145	<u>WRITING</u>
SP 146	<u>LISTENING</u>
SP 147	<u>READING</u>
SP 148	<u>NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION</u> ⁴¹
SP 149	<u>PHYSICAL</u>
SP 150	<u>ESTHETIC</u>
SP 151	<u>SYMBOLIC</u>
SP 152	<u>SIGNS</u>
SP 153	<u>EXTRASENSORY PERCEPTION</u>

SP 154 HALL'S SILENT LANGUAGE⁴²

SP 155 MOTIVES

SP 156 GAMES

SP 157 THE JOHARI WINDOW

SP 158 RUMORS

SP 159 INTERPERSONAL SKILL

"Interpersonal skill is of the essence for those who must operate in the ever-changing environment of the higher levels of military administration. In fact, at each higher level of military administration, as the lines of authority become more complex, assignments more diffuse, and contacts with other agencies more elaborate, the relative importance of interpersonal skill comes to be valued more highly than substantive knowledge."⁴³

SP 160 GOAL AWARENESS

"An individual's awareness of his own goals is probably biased in the direction of social desirability."⁴⁴

SOCIOLOGY CONCEPTS

SOC 001	<u>BASIC SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS</u>
SOC 002	<u>MODELS OF SOCIETY</u>
SOC 003	<u>MODELS OF MAN</u>
SOC 004	<u>SOCIAL STRUCTURES</u>
SOC 005	<u>SOCIAL INTERACTION</u>
SOC 006	<u>SOCIAL AGGREGATES</u>
SOC 007	<u>SOCIAL ROLES/NORMS/HABITS/STATUS</u>
SOC 008	<u>NORMS</u>

"Norms in social systems correspond to habits in individuals."¹

SOC 009	<u>SOCIAL CHANGE</u>
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"Status distinctions that cannot be put in terms of caste can be classified as manifestations of social class. Roughly, a social class is a group of people who participate socially with one another on equal terms, or who would be willing to do so. They tend to have similar manners, modes of speech, moral attitudes, educational levels, and comparable amounts of material property. Unlike castes, social classes are not separated by impassable barriers. In a mobile society, as in America, people frequently move from one social class to another."²

SOC 011

ORGANIZATIONS

SOC 012

FORMAL ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATION

SOC 013,

BUREAUCRACY

Nearly everyone in America knows about bureaucracy, or at least has felt its effects. It has a reputation as being bad. It means to most people red tape, long lines, impersonality, inefficiency, and "the establishment." However accurate some of these charges may be, bureaucracy is a great deal more, and every manager should understand it in detail.

A historical or evolutionary setting is the best way to place bureaucracy into perspective. The manner in which man has chosen to associate himself with other human beings for the purpose of achieving more for himself than he would be capable of attaining alone can be called social organization or social form. In the beginning man formed tribes or bands. These became households, villages, and towns. At the same time, relationships such as family and kinship developed. Each of these organized social forms and many others - feudal status, castes, nepotism, slavery - were evolved by men to accomplish their desires and purposes, good or bad. In a sense, they can be considered forms of management. They did not happen along with work organizations, they were the work organizations. The bureaucratic form is but a recent invention by man in this evolution of what seems to him to be the

best way to accomplish his objectives with people. Bureaucracy came about from the needs of the industrial revolution. It was conceptualized about the turn of the century by Max Weber who described an ideal-type bureaucracy, meaning its rational form, not its preferred form. His model is not the goal of bureaucracy. It is not a description of its actual form or what it should be, but simply a bench mark from which to measure any existing bureaucratic-type organization. Weberian bureaucracy has the following characteristics:

1. It is continuous in itself. It has the potential to go on and on because it exists apart from its members.

2. It is comprised of offices, roles or positions, not personalities.

3. Its members are bound and directed by written rules. There is no oral tradition.

4. Each position is limited to a specific, prescribed sphere of competence, and does not permit interfering in the sphere of another position.

5. The position holder has the authority to carry out his duties, regardless of his personality. He does not have the authority to perform anyone else's duties.

6. The component roles are arranged in a hierarchy. Authority is also arranged hierarchially.

7. A person cannot hold an organizational role without specific knowledge, training, and experience.

8. Selection and advancement is competitive without regard to personal factors.

9. Positions are clearly separated from the private lives of the holders.

10. No one can come to have personal ownership of a position.

11. All actions in the bureaucracy are recorded in writing for purposes of accountability and continuity.

12. Jobs in the bureaucracy are full-time and have first priority on working life. They offer a career progression opportunity to members.

13. Pay is by rank, not by productivity.

14. A large, complex task is broken down into numerous, small, simple job roles through a division of labor, controlled and coordinated from above.

15. A well-designed bureaucracy will only achieve a maximum output when each and every sub-system or position is performing at its prescribed minimum output.

Weber's model allows us to see more clearly the reasons that bureaucracy evolved from the Industrial Revolution. It "was developed as a reaction against the personal subjugation, nepotism, cruelty, emotional vicissitudes, and subjective judgements which passed for managerial practices in the early days of the Industrial Revolution."³

Bureaucracy was welcomed as a liberating force from the restrictions imposed on the common worker. The impersonality, formality, rules, obsession with written forms, lack of regard for the personal factors of both employees or clients that are considered so bad by today's public are the very attributes that made it so welcome in the past. Some of the reasons for this were:

1. It made better use of the human talent available and gave common people a reason to strive to get ahead.
2. It brought predictability. This was a fundamental virtue. Complex things could be done precisely, and uncertainty was reduced.
3. It reduced interpersonal frictions and organizational politicking which previously wasted so much time and effort. By eliminating this waste, more complex tasks could be undertaken with less risk, resulting in a growing standard of living.
4. Complex tasks could be performed with precision.
5. Because there was no role overlap, there were no jurisdictional disputes, with their attendant wastes of time and effort searching for a decisionmaker.
6. It was rational and therefore more efficient. This also enhanced the standard of living.
7. It could thrive on the increasing population density.

8. It worked, and it worked better than had any previous form of organization had.⁴

SOC 015

ORGANIZATIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF BUREAUCRACY

A simple model of the public and private sectors would show for each a system which has resources as its input and some sort of product, good or service as its output. Around the system (business and industry) there is a known output which fills a demand from the environment. In order for the system to keep operating, it must have feedback from the customer. Using feedback, the private sector can decide how to modify its input resources and its process to keep the output the optimum one for the customer. In the public sector, on the other hand, the model is not quite the same. The output of many activities in the public sector are extremely difficult or impossible to measure. How does one measure national defense? Certainly not by "wars fought." "Laws made" is inadequate for measuring the output of Congress. The inputs to the public sector are such resources as taxpayers' dollars, congressional appropriations, political influence, integrity and a wealth of other factors. Feedback is broken. There can be little or no precision to feeding back the satisfaction of national defense, for example, when national defense has no useful measure. Where feedback in the private sector can regulate the output by controlling precisely the input and the process, the broken feedback in the public sector

precludes it there. As a result, public bureaucracies tend to be less efficient and effective than they should. At the very worst, coercion and even extortion can be used by interest groups to determine the system input resources. In turn, this can reduce the effectiveness of the process itself. There are some other individual consequences of broken feedback in a bureaucracy.

1. While a successful output cannot be easily measured, failure is obvious. As a result, bureaucrats tend to dwell on preventing failure rather than promoting success, and the two are not necessarily the same.

2. Bureaucrats are interested in their financial security and tend to protect their jobs by being conservative so as to maintain the status quo.

3. The promotional aspects of bureaucracy tend to foster careerism, where a person looks ahead to his next job and considers his present job a ticket already punched.

4. Bureaucracy promotes professionalism which causes people to do the things their profession tells them to do rather than the things that are best for the organization. The role that the professional performs is played in part to an unseen audience composed of the other members of his profession, not his bureaucratic superior.

5. Bureaucrats continually search for decision criteria because their output is so difficult to measure. This is necessary in case they are asked to justify decisions. In

particular, they look for either visible criterial or quantifiable (countable) criteria of any kind, because they tend to be believable, just by their nature. Often this process gets out of hand to the point that the data is all irrelevant, but so bulky or complicated to understand that it just accepted.

6. End-Means Inversion is a common result of the difficulty in measuring output. Frequently, bureaucrats do not even know what their output is because they have used one of the inputs as the output so that they can justify and measure it. Organizations cannot boast of intangibles. One's fitness report cannot report on performance toward an illusive goal. Pilots brag about flight hours, ships speak of miles steamed and gunnery scores. Congress speaks of bills considered. All of these are inputs used as outputs because they are measurable.⁵

SOC 016 SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF BUREAUCRACY

The impact of bureaucratic forms on the society is greater than people generally realize. Another way of putting it is that society holds many values which are the consequences of bureaucracy. It is true that people created the bureaucratic form, but it is now, in a certain sense, more powerful than its creator and able to force upon people values they do not like and perhaps would not have otherwise chosen for themselves. Some of the social consequences that have been identified are:

1. Organizational knowledge becomes an end in itself because it makes the "machine" work.

2. Standardization pervades our culture to the point that escape from it is nearly impossible. The reason bureaucracy has standardized so many things is that people want predictability in their lives. For example, a family driving across country complains about the lack of open, natural country, untouched by man; yet, at the end of the day, when they want to stop for the night, they insist that there be a Holiday Inn or some other standardized, predictable chain motel where they happen to be. They want, indeed demand, that it have the kind of bed, decor, TV, shower, food, scotch, and toilet paper that they are used to having. Bureaucracy and only bureaucracy gives it to them. The quaint, old, small motel off the road a few miles ahead probably has no shower.

3. Professionalism flourishes because in a bureaucracy knowledge flows up. Every worker tries to make his job seem to have all of the attributes of a genuine profession.

4. Organizational persistence is a result of the bureaucratic method. Each day, an organization must interact with an environment that is often hostile. The act of survival in this environment tends to make the living organization grow and shape itself only in ways that can continue to survive in hostile environments. It adapts only in ways that will endure. As a result, an organization that is no longer useful can

still manage to live on and survive for a long time, even against all logic.

5. Habits of obedience prevail in bureaucratic societies because organizations reward behavior that conforms in the range acceptable to the organization. For example, many parents are involved with their children in Little League, not because it is fun, but because it is an ideal activity for building their children into good people, like they are. Good people in our society must learn their work roles and their leisure role, they must learn to accept organizations, they must learn their place in the organization. Instinctively, parents teach their children the obedient norms and values that have worked for them in being successful in life. For better or worse, our obedient habits are dictated in large degree by the bureaucratic organizations we create, work in, and submit to.

6. In bureaucracies, power dwells in the middle of organizations. Changes of top managers, Presidents, politicians, agency heads, whether by election or coup d'etat, does not really change the body. There is still a need for the bureaucracy to carry on, regardless of the incumbent leaders. We still want fresh water and electricity, paychecks and gasoline. That is the power of the middle and why it remains even in crisis.

7. The social classes have leveled. At the time of the American Revolution, there was a very small elite at the top,

a slightly wider middle class, and the great number of the masses all at the bottom. Today its shape has become like a circle bulging at the middle. There is a very small elite at the top and a very small low class at the bottom. Everyone else is in the middle. There are numerous consequences to this levelling of the classes, one of which is the fact that the service industries are employing a percentage of the population that is increasing faster than in any other industry. Services and bureaucracy are very closely linked.

8. Today, many of the earlier virtues that made bureaucracy an improvement in society are still virtues today. Overall, it is probably the most effective form man has devised in which to work together. In fact, bureaucracy is indispensable to modern, mass society. The patterns of everyday life that people have become used to and demand are the very patterns that have been developed and can be provided by bureaucracy alone. Indeed, it is the only big organization in town. To escape it would require forming another big organization to compete that, itself, would have to become a bureaucracy.⁶

SOC 017

THE GROWTH OF BUREAUCRACY

New enterprises and organizations are formed every day, and when they grow, they grow inexorably into a form which uses bureaucratic precepts. The evolutionary ways in which these bureaucratic forms develop have a certain rational destiny about them. To illustrate, if a small, family-type operation

desires to expand or grow, it must eventually hire outsiders to assist. This requires negotiating a reasonable, modern working relationship with them. There are certain laws, regulations and precedents which must be obeyed - labor union requirements, bookkeeping practices, tax laws. Before an operation becomes very large, then, it tends to be forced into certain modes of operation by either law, by rational cost effectiveness decisions, or by social norms. Specialists (lawyers, accountants, public relations men, psychologists) eventually have to be retained to handle various aspects of the business, but they do not contribute directly to the output of the operation. In short order, the enterprise becomes bureaucratic, having learned the inescapable lesson that the bureaucratic form is the most effective and efficient form we know of for modern society.

Some organizations began with one man, an entrepreneur, who had an idea and the charisma to make it into a large enterprise. Over time, his idea may have had a lasting impact on society (consider the car, the airplane, electricity, coke, and hamburgers), and a large number of people have geared their lives to support his idea (consider petroleum workers of all kinds, mechanics, electrical workers, truck drivers, and cowboys). If his idea dies when the 'great man' dies, the economic impact on the many people in society who either work in his organization or use his product is enormous. His followers will not let the idea die. They routinize his

charismatic attributes and they institutionalize his virtues in order to perpetuate them. As the organization lives on, its informal processes become formalized or institutionalized. A good solution is frozen within the structure so that it will be available the next time that problem arises. Growth leads to more growth, often in an unplanned and overall irrational fashion. For example, a typical manager's role contains a hierarchy of tasks arranged in priority based upon the demands he perceives. There are first the routine, programmed tasks that managers in his business always do. Then he has recurring reports to work on, and deadlines to meet, and crises which always seem to happen. Finally, there are the open-ended tasks for which he feels no strong, regular pressure, such as developing his subordinates, keeping current in his professional field, and developing new techniques. He never seems to get around to these things, at least they usually wait for the daily, routine items they compete with. The common solution to these latter, conscience-nagging, neglected tasks is to give them to someone else to do. A specialized billet is created for a career development specialist, or perhaps a department or staff to perform research and development. Eventually this elaboration to a special, creative staff is routinized or bureaucratized and becomes a permanent part of the organization. The special staff will grow, increase its number of routine, programmed tasks, establish its own report cycles and deadline, experience crisis, and end up with no time to do the creative

task for which they were created. So, they will establish a special new billet, and so the bureaucracy grows, rational from day to day, but often irrational overall.⁷

SOC 018 INFORMAL ASPECTS OR ORGANIZATION

SOC 019 PROFESSIONALISM⁸

SOC 020 CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

SOC 021 PHYSICAL AND MENTAL ASPECTS

SOC 022 ENVIRONMENTAL ASPECTS

SOC 023 CULTURAL ASPECTS

SOC 024 YOUTH AND VIOLENCE

"Hot weather favors violence, both because it increases bodily discomfort and irritability, and because it brings people out of doors where contact and conflict can occur."⁹

"The participants in fist fights, vandalism, riots, lynchings, pogroms, it has been noted, are predominantly youthful. It seems unlikely that young people are more frustrated in their lives than older people, but presumably they do have a thinner layer of socialized habit between impulses and their release. It is relatively easier for a youth to regress to the tantrum stage of infant wrath and, lacking long years of social inhibition, to find a fierce joy

in this release. Youth too has the agility, the energy, and the risk-taking proclivity required for violence."¹⁰

SOC 025	<u>WORK</u> ¹¹
SOC 026	<u>OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY AND CHOICE</u>
SOC 027	<u>LABOR UNIONS</u>
SOC 028	<u>ASSIGNMENT AND CONDITIONS OF WORK</u>
SOC 029	<u>RELIGION</u>
SOC 030	<u>CLASSIFICATION OF RELIGIOUS COMMITMENT</u>
SOC 031	<u>FUNCTIONAL CONTENTS</u>
SOC 032	<u>AMERICAN RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS</u>
SOC 033	<u>RELIGIOUS RELATIONS WITH OTHER INSTITUTIONS</u>
SOC 034	<u>CONFLICT FROM RELIGIOUS BELIEFS</u>

Some unexpected findings have occurred from studies of the religious beliefs of the Western world. Conflict develops in believers because they are taught two contradictory sets of beliefs. On the one hand, they are taught that they should view mankind with humanitarian eyes and interact with one another using such values. On the other hand, they are also taught, actually or implicitly, that only those who believe religiously as they do will be saved. The result has been the

"paradox" of people's action throughout history. Believers of the same religions have performed noble, humanitarian deeds and vile, despicable acts, even wars, both inspired from religious motives. Some evidence shows that devout people are less tolerant of non-believers and are slightly less humanitarian as well. Believers generally show greater anxiety than non-believers. Some feel that the cause of conflict in religiously mixed marriages is the belief that one's own religious group is the only one chosen by God. The conclusion seems to be that people whose religious orientation emphasizes the uniqueness of their particular religion and the means of defending it will tend to be antihumanitarian, more anxious, and bigoted. People who favor the humanitarian beliefs tend to behave accordingly, stressing tolerance. In both, the manner in which a person resolves the conflicting sets of beliefs in his mind will play a part in guiding his behavior. Unhealthy resolution can lead to any of the full range of defensive tactics available to ease the sense of guilt his religion gives him.¹²

SOC 035

SALVATION

Research into the value systems of students has shown that church attendance can be predicted accurately based on a person's value of salvation. People who go to church at least once a week tend to rate salvation as the first value on their list. Those who attend church once a month or less tend to rank salvation very low on their list of values.¹³

"The chief reason why religion becomes the focus of prejudice is that it usually stands for more than faith - it is the pivot of the cultural tradition of a group. However sublime the origins of a religion may be, it rapidly becomes secularized by taking over cultural functions. Islam is more than a religion; it is a well-knit cluster of related cultures carried by ethnic cousins who are sharply demarcated from the non-Moslem world. Christianity is so locked with western civilization that it is hard to keep in mind its original core; and sects of Christianity have become tied into subcultural and national groups so that religious divisions march hand in hand with ethnic and national divisions. Most clear of all is the case of the Jews. While they are primarily a religious group, they are likewise viewed as a race, a nation, a people, a culture. When religious distinctions are made to do double duty, the grounds for prejudice are laid. For prejudice means that inept, overinclusive categories are employed in place of differentiated thinking.

The clergy of a church may and often do become defenders of a culture. They, too, work with inept categories. In defending the absolutes of their faith, they tend to defend their in-group as a whole, finding in the absolutes of their faith justification for the secular practices of their in-group. Not infrequently they justify and sweeten ethnic prejudices with religious sanctions."¹³

SOC 037	<u>EDUCATION</u>
SOC 038	<u>MASS EDUCATION</u>
SOC 039	<u>MASS MEDIA</u>
SOC 040	<u>CONTROL OF EDUCATION</u>
SOC 041	<u>POPULATION</u> ¹⁴
SOC 042	<u>DEMOGRAPHICS</u> ¹⁵
SOC 043	<u>STATISTICAL DATA</u> ¹⁶
SOC 044	<u>HETEROGENEITY</u> ¹⁷
SOC 045	<u>MOBILITY</u> ¹⁸
SOC 046	<u>RATES</u> ¹⁹
SOC 047	<u>MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIFE</u> ²⁰
SOC 048	<u>KINSHIP</u> ²¹
SOC 049	<u>IN-LAW FAMILIES</u> ²²
SOC 050	<u>EQUALITIES IN THE FAMILY</u> ²³
SOC 051	<u>FAMILY ROLES AND STATUS</u> ²⁴
SOC 052	<u>STABILITY</u>
SOC 053	<u>THE U.S. MILITARY</u>

SOC 054

CIVILIAN CONTROL

SOC 055

POLITICAL POWER

SOC 056

PROFESSIONALIZATION

SOC 057

AGGRESSION AND SENTIMENT
IN THE MILITARY

"The psychoanalyst would point out the aggressive impulses must be at work among many who select the military career and become heroic leaders. But for the military professional who is to rise in the hierarchy, the entire process of training and career development places a premium on the ability to curb, or at least repress the direct exercise of aggression. The cult of manliness and toughness associated with junior officers is often a reaction against profound feelings of weakness. Such aggressive pressure can diminish as the officer develops actual competence, and as he advances in rank and organizational authority. The content and forms of military honor serve the officer in coming to terms with and managing his inner needs. Of course, curbed or repressed psychological pressures continue to direct a person's overt behavior. But there is still great truth in de Tocqueville's observation that in the Army of a political democracy the most peaceful men are the generals.

As a result, military honor and the pursuit of glory are often a mixture of toughness and sentimentality." "Professional

soldiers are sentimental men, for all the harsh realities of their calling. In their wallets and in their memories, they carry bits of philosophy, fragments of poetry, quotations from the scriptures, which, in times of stress and danger speak to them with great meaning." The parallel with the professional journalist is most striking. Both professions attract men who have rejected prosaic routines and who have strong motives which seem to them to be idealistic. The pressures of these professions require that personal idealism be submerged under a facade of realism. But the emotions which produced the idealism persist in the form of sentimentality."²⁵

SOC 058 THE COMING OF NEW MILITARY AUTHORITY

"Many civilians still see the military profession as it existed in an earlier phase, when authoritarian domination was the typical mode of behavior. Despite the residues of ritual and ceremony, by 1945, members of the military profession who reached the top had demonstrated an ability to operate within the transformed system of military authority, even though they had to go through a painful re-education."²⁶

SOC 059 CHANGE IN THE MILITARY

"Perhaps the greatest strain facing the military manager is the episodic character of combat. The sense of urgency, the reality of immediate combat, is a stimulus that makes military authority effective. In the cold war, once the

immediate pressure of combat is removed, there is a tendency to slip back into older patterns of authoritarian discipline which are no longer effective. Only in those units which are constantly on the alert can the sense of urgency counteract organization inertia, and in such units military managers must face the alternative disruption of hyperactivity and prolonged organizational tension. Size and complexity militate against organizational effectiveness and initiative. Because the military establishment - like other complex large scale organizations - is so difficult to manage, and requires so many competent leaders, there is reason to believe that the introduction of enlightened policies may not necessarily produce commensurate positive results. On the contrary, the new managerial techniques require long periods of training and very high levels of organizational loyalty. Much confusion and tension exists in the military; officers with older traditions must adjust and readjust to the requirements of an increasingly technological organization."²⁷

"The historic symbol of resistance to technology is the horse, the badge of the aristocratic and rural background of the military profession."²⁸

SOC 060

PURE MILITARY MANAGERS

"All organizations have inherent pressures toward human inertia. In the military establishment, in particular, technological innovation proceeds faster and more efficiently

than does organization change. It was inevitable that the rise of the military manager would generate new tensions and unreasonable conflicts. As long as the professional soldier cannot accept the self-image of an engineer, there are powerful limits to a purely managerial philosophy. And, in fact, there is no reason to believe that the military establishment with its combat goals, could be effective without a sense of social solidarity, grounded in tradition and sentiment."²⁹

SOC 061 SOURCE OF CHANGE IN THE MILITARY

" . . . for the most part, military technology follows closely the course of industrial technology. The military establishment is marked by the same cultural lag and the same reluctance to adopt new technological innovations as is industrial enterprises. But the cultural lag of the military has had more dramatically disastrous effects, since the consequences of warfare are quick and deadly. Both institutions depend primarily on 'outside' contributions, the military establishment depends on civilians, for revolutionary techniques. Even within the military establishment it has historically been the 'outsiders', the marginal social groups and the unconventional persons, who have carried the innovating seeds. . . . In the United States no example is more obvious or more controversial than that of Admiral Hyman Rickover, born of East European Jewish parentage - a member of the military

who has persistently labored outside the conventional patterns of naval life."³⁰

SOC 062

MILITARY SOCIAL ISOLATION

" . . . in the past the military profession has been judged deficient because of its social and intellectual isolation from civilian society. While the extent of this segregation is probably exaggerated, it is clear that before World War II this exclusiveness helped the profession to maintain its esprit de corps, and to retain its officer personnel during a period of civilian indifference. Contrary to popular belief, the resignation rate for academy graduates from the armed forces during the inter-war years was very low. However, if since World War II the military profession has abandoned its social isolation, it has also experienced an increased exodus of younger officers, including academy graduates. By military standards, the rate is considered high."³¹

SOC 063

MILITARY/CIVILIAN SKILL DIFFERENTIAL

"The new tasks of the military require that the professional officer develop more and more of the skills and orientations common to civilian administrators and civilian leaders. The narrowing difference in skill between military and civilian society is an outgrowth of the increasing concentration of technical specialists in the military. The men who perform such technical tasks have direct civilian equivalents:

engineers, machine maintenance specialists, health service experts, logistic and personnel technicians."³²

SOC 064

ELITE

"A small proportion of men within the military profession, as in any profession, can be thought of as constituting 'elite'. The term elite refers to those who have the greatest amount of actual and potential power, if power is defined a control over the behavior of others. One must use the term with great caution. Nevertheless, it is perfectly reasonable to examine the military in order to determine who are the elite in the profession.

Because of the formal structure of the military establishment, the military elite comprises the highest ranking officers. This is not to overlook the fact that some lower-ranking officers wield considerable power, or that most top officers rely on lower-ranking advisors and specialists who influence military decisions. Nevertheless, the elite concept makes it possible to distinguish these members who use their skills to achieve social and political ends from those who are content to practice their profession for personal and immediate rewards."³³

SOC 065

PERSISTENT NEED FOR HEROIC FIGHTERS

"The civilian character of the military establishment increases as larger numbers of its personnel are devoted to logistical tasks, which have their parallels in civilian

enterprise. As long as the armed forces must rely largely on drafted personnel, or short-term reservists, who have volunteered because of the pressures of the selective service system, the military establishment must accommodate itself to personnel who are essentially civilians. This constant flow of civilians into and out of the ranks of the military is a powerful influence against military traditionalism and authoritarian forms.

As the organizational revolution in technology increases the importance of the deterrence of violence, the military must concern itself with broad ranges of political, social, and economic policies. The stationing of troops in Allied countries, the conduct of international military alliances, and the development of military assistance programs, all have the consequence of modifying the purely military character of the profession.

Despite these developments, the military establishment has not lost its distinctive characteristics. The narrowing distinction between military and non-military bureaucracies has not resulted in an elimination of fundamental differences, and there is no reason to assume that these differences will be eliminated in the future. Despite the rational and technological aspects of the military establishment, the need for heroic fighters persists. The pervasive requirements of combat set the limits to civilianizing tendencies."³⁴

THE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE
OF THE MILITARY

"This proliferation of skill - which continues at a rapid rate with the introduction of guided missiles - has changed the hierarchial organization of the profession. In theory, and in image, the military rank system is a continuous and sharp pyramid with direct and clear-cut lines of authority from top to bottom. In actuality, because of the need to find places for greater numbers of specialized personnel, the military hierarchy is no longer a pyramid. In the days when technology was simpler, the most numerous rank was the private and the able-bodied seaman, both of whom performed relatively standardized tasks. The number of enlisted men dropped off progressively and sharply with each higher level of rank to a very small apex. Only the handful of top noncommissioned officers "outranked" the junior officers in administrative and technical skill. In such a hierarchy the number of ranks could be few, the lines of authority could extend directly from the apex to the very bottom, and managerial skills were not at a premium."³⁵

In actuality, the rank structure in all services, both officer and enlisted, has taken on a diamond-shaped pattern.

"The new skill structure does not permit such a simple hierarchial command structure, although the military commander both issues and obeys direct orders and regulations. Clearly, as the destructive power of the armed forces increases,

channels for issuing orders to make use of weapons become more and more centralized. But, simultaneously, the task of military authority more and more often involves the coordination of diversified units, rather than the exercise of direct control of the highest echelons over the lowest ones. Thus, the military establishment, like most other large-scale organizations, displays a centralization in basic decision-making, but at the same time decentralization in implementing operations."³⁶

SOC 067

MILITARY TREND THINKING

"Whether the problem is missiles or manpower, planning toward the future tends to be a projection of existing trends, rather than an imaginative emphasis on revolutionary developments. Instead of exerting a direct effort to develop the intercontinental ballistic missile, military-stimulated technology has methodically sought to develop short range and medium range missiles and then to move to the perfection of the "ultimate" weapon. In the process trend thinking has led to the proliferation of a wide variety of prototypes and sub-prototypes, for each potential line of development must be perfected at the expense of the rapid development of a standardized system. Despite the mass production character of American society standardization of technical equipment has not had priority in the United States military. Elaborate product differentiation and enforced technological obsolescence based on minor modifications are essential aspects of private

enterprise in the United States. This orientation seems to have influenced decision-making in military technology."³⁷

SOC 068

WEAKENING MILITARY HONOR

"Honor is supposed to be binding on the entire military profession. It is supposed to insure the unique characteristics of the officer, and to guarantee his career commitment. Yet, few military leaders are blind to the progressive inability of honor to resolve the strains within the profession. They are concerned that junior officers do not remain in the service long enough to assimilate the code. The broadening of the basis of social recruitment to include strata without service traditions, and the increased careerist motives of officer candidates, further weaken the importance of honor. The concept of military honor itself is subject to intense pressure by the values of contemporary society, and the services themselves engage in searching self-criticism over the 'crisis'"³⁸

SOC 069

SOCIAL COHESION IN THE MILITARY

"The intimate social solidarity of the military profession, which civilians often both envy and resent, is grounded in a peculiar occupational fact. Separation between place of work and place of residence, characteristic of urban occupations, is absent. Instead, the military community is a relatively closed community where professional and residential

life have been completely inter-mingled. The sharp segregation between work and private life has been minimized in the military occupation.

Sociologists strongly believe that some of the basic tensions of industrial society result from the absence of adequate mechanisms for bridging the gap between the requirements of work and the requirements of residence and family. In the 'old Army' and in the 'old Navy', occupation and family life were closely linked. The realities of the profession pervaded family and social life, and, in turn, the military community was comprehensively organized to assist family relations. The result was not only relative social isolation, since military families tended to have more contact among themselves than with outsiders, but also a powerful esprit de corps among professional officers. The problem of choosing between work and family life did not exist.

The organizational revolution in the military establishment has gradually altered social relations within the military community. A combination of developments has enlarged the military community and weakened its social cohesion. First there is an increasing trend toward the civilian pattern of separation of work and residence, because the military base is no longer able to accommodate all personnel. Furthermore, military personnel are now more often stationed at civilian institutions - government, research, industrial, and educational - away from military communities. Second, the sheer increase

in numbers makes it more difficult to maintain professional solidarity. Each service has many more military installations, and the size of many installations has grown to the point where they take on some of the impersonal characteristics of an urban metropolis. At the same time, the more representative social recruitment has meant a decline in the sense of social exclusiveness. In the past, when the officer corps was dominated by a Protestant Episcopalian upper-middle class background, the 'outsiders' either transformed themselves, or were few enough to be merely tolerated. With a large number of officers from more humble social backgrounds, plus a greater variety of religious, ethnic, and racial backgrounds, the military community has become more of a melting pot.

Third, the old military community was composed almost exclusively of military personnel and their families. The contemporary military establishment has large numbers of civilians who occupy an ambiguous position in their desire to have the best of both worlds. Their presence enlarges and dilutes the military community. The same can be said for the limited presence of the women's auxiliary corps, for the traditional military profession was based on the solidarity of an all-male fraternity. Fourth, in the past the military community was based on sharp class consciousness, as between enlisted man and officer and within the hierarchy of ranks The Navy was even more rigid in its distinctions. Such social relations could operate as long as military organization involved

discipline based on domination. With the growth of managerial authority, the rank system remains intact, especially the line between officers and enlisted personnel, but efforts are now made to prevent status from being too obtrusive in the life of the military community. Enlisted personnel and their wives no longer can be taken for granted in an institution which operates on the basis of a 'team concept,' they must be fitted into the social scheme and their presence acknowledged."³⁹

SOC 070 CAREER PATTERNS OF MILITARY INNOVATORS

"... relevant assignments were those which required communications skills, trained the officer in negotiation, had strong political overtones, and involved relating the military to some outside organization. Before World War II, these specialized staff assignments were often looked upon by most officers as unusual, tedious, and even likely to interfere with career development. Many who were to rise to the very top took pains to avoid such posts as intelligence officer, military attache, language officer, posts involving congressional liaison and public relations, liaison with foreign armies, and military government. Actually, these preparatory assignments served as a general education in military management and oriented the officer to the broader emerging political tasks of the armed forces. Officers who got these assignments were often recognized as men whose interests extended beyond those of the average narrowly oriented professional. To achieve

specialization in such areas was, of course, detrimental to an officer's "career." Yet, these assignments, which required symbolic skills, and were so different from routine military tasks, assisted the officer to master multiple roles. In general, successful leadership requires the ability to shift from one role to another with ease. In the current military establishment, such specialized assignments are more and more common but for the period when our sample of the 1950 military leaders were developing their careers, to have sought, or even to have accepted, such assignment revealed a strong propensity to excel and to innovate."⁴⁰

"Prescribed careers performed with high competence lead to entrance into the professional elite, the highest point in the military hierarchy at which technical and routinized functions are performed. By contrast, entrance into the smaller group - the elite nucleus - where innovating perspectives, discretionary responsibility, and political skills are required, is assigned to persons with unconventional and adaptive careers.

This hypothesis is probably applicable to all organizations, for top leadership, especially in a crisis, is seldom reserved for those who take no risks. But among the military the belief in a prescribed career is particularly strong. An unconventional career, within limits, can imply a predisposition toward innovation, or, at least, criticism of the operation of the military establishment at any given moment. It

implies that the officer has undergone experiences which have enabled him to acquire new perspectives, new skills, and a broader outlook than is afforded a routine career. Unconventional or unusual careers, however, must be developed within the framework of existing institutions, since officers who express too openly their desire to innovate or to criticize are not likely to survive."⁴¹

SOC 072

MAJOR AMERICAN VALUES

In American Society, Williams lists the following major, American value orientations existing in the United States:

1. Achievement and Success
2. Activity and Work
3. Moral Orientation
4. Humanitarian Mores
5. Efficiency and Practicality
6. Progress
7. Material Comfort
8. Equality
9. Freedom
10. External Conformity
11. Science and Secular Rationality
12. Nationalism-Patriotism
13. Democracy
14. Individual Personality
15. Racism and Related Group Superiority Themes⁴³

SOC 073

CHANGE IN AMERICA

SOC 074

SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

SOC 075

ELITES

SOC 076

PREJUDICE BY SEX

"For some people - misogynists among them - the sex-grouping remains important throughout their lives. Women are viewed as a wholly different species from men, usually an inferior species. Such primary and secondary sex differences as exist are greatly exaggerated and are inflated into imaginary distinctions that justify discrimination. With half of mankind (his own sex) the male may feel an in-group solidarity, with the other half, an irreconcilable conflict."⁴⁴

POLITICAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS

POL 001	<u>THE PEOPLE</u>
POL 002	<u>FREEDOM</u>
POL 003	<u>EQUALITY</u>
POL 004	<u>DEMOCRACY</u>
POL 005	<u>LIBERALISM</u>
POL 006	<u>SUFFERAGE</u>
POL 007	<u>WELFARE STATE</u>
POL 008	<u>MONARCHY</u>
POL 009	<u>NATIONAL CHARACTER</u>

"Although nations and ethnic groups do not often correspond, still it is possible to slice mankind by nations, as well as by ethnic groups, and ask what differences exist among them. The concept of "national character" implies that members of a nation, despite ethnic, racial, religious, or individual differences among them, do resemble one another in certain fundamental patterns of belief and conduct, more than the resemble members of other nations.

There is, for example, an image of American national character. We find, according to Riesman, that outside observers tend to agree that it is marked by friendliness, generosity, shallowness, and by an uncertainty regarding values that leads Americans to seek and demand approval."³

POL 010 THE SOCIETY

POL 011 PLURALISM VS MONISM

POL 012 PLURALIST SOCIETY

Within political science, the concept of "a pluralist society - where many different men form into many different groups for persuing many ends by many means - . . ." refers to the form of democracy in the Western world today. Its people are free to enter and form unions, churches, societies, and political parties, as they desire.⁴

POL 013 UNITY VS DUALISM

POL 014 HUMANISM VS POLITICS

POL 015 ECONOMICS VS ETHICS

POL 016 LAISSEZ-FAIRE

POL 017 CAPITALISM

POL 018 COMMUNISM

POL 019 SOCIALISM

POL 020 TYPES OF SOCIALISM

POL 021 DIALECTIC MATERIALISM

POL 022 FASCISM

POL 023	<u>ANARCHISM</u>
POL 024	<u>THE GOVERNMENT</u>
POL 025	<u>AUTHORITY</u> ⁵
POL 026	<u>LEGITIMACY</u> ⁶
POL 027	<u>AUTHORITARIANISM</u>
POL 028	<u>TOTALITARIANISM</u>
POL 029	<u>ORDER</u>
POL 030	<u>LAW</u>
POL 031	<u>ADMINISTRATIVE LAW</u>
POL 032	<u>CIVIL LAW</u>
POL 033	<u>INTERNATIONAL LAW</u>
POL 034	<u>CIVIL LIBERTIES</u>
<p>"Civil liberties become civil rights when they are claimed and enforced through judicial or administrative action."⁷</p>	
POL 035	<u>CIVIL RIGHTS</u>
POL 036	<u>TREASON</u>
POL 037	<u>SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY</u>
POL 038	<u>THE USE OF POWER</u>

POL 039	<u>POWER</u>
POL 040	<u>TYPES OF POWER</u>
POL 041	<u>REFERENT</u>
POL 042	<u>COUNTERVAILING</u>
POL 043	<u>COERCION</u>
POL 044	<u>REPRESSION</u>
POL 045	<u>SOVEREIGNTY AND ABSOLUTISM</u>
POL 046	<u>INTEGRATION VS SEPARATION OF POWERS</u>
POL 047	<u>ELITISM</u>
POL 048	<u>TRADITION</u>
POL 049	<u>TYRANNY</u>
POL 050	<u>FEDERALISM</u>
POL 051	<u>REPUBLIC</u>
POL 052	<u>THE AMERICAN FORM OF GOVERNMENT</u>
POL 053	<u>THE U.S. CONSTITUTION</u>
POL 054	<u>PREJUDICE AND AUTHORITARIANISM</u>

"Living in a democracy is a higgledy-piggledy affair.
Finding it so, prejudiced people sometimes declare that

America should not be a democracy, but merely a "republic". The consequences of personal freedom they find unpredictable. Individuality makes for indefiniteness, disorderliness, and change. It is easier to live in a defined hierarchy where people are types, and where groups are not constantly shifting and dissolving.

To avoid such slipperiness the prejudiced person looks for hierarchy in society. Power arrangements are definite - something he can understand and count on. He likes authority, and says that what America needs is "more discipline." By discipline, of course, he means outer discipline, preferring, so to speak, to see people's backbones on the outside rather than on the inside. When students are asked to list the names of great people they most admired, prejudiced students usually gave names of leaders who had exercised power and control over others (Napoleon, Bismark) whereas the unprejudiced listed, more typically, artists, humanitarians, scientists (Lincoln, Einstein).

This need for authority reflects a deep distrust of human beings . . .

. . . . Now, the essential philosophy of democracy is the reverse. It tells us to trust a person until he proves himself untrustworthy. The prejudiced person does the opposite. He distrusts every person until he proves himself trustworthy.

. . . . To the prejudiced person the best way to control these suspicions is to have an orderly, authoritative,

powerful society. Strong nationalism is a good thing. Hitler and Mussolini weren't so wrong. What America needs is a strong leader-a man on horseback!

We have evidence that the authoritarian pattern may become set at an early age. Prejudiced children are more likely than others to believe that "teachers should tell children what to do and not worry about what the children want." Even by the age of seven the same type of child is distressed and at loose ends unless the teacher gives him instructions what to do and makes his assignments definite and authoritative."⁸

POL 055 REPRESENTATION

POL 056 VIOLENCE

POL 057 REVOLUTION

POL 058 AUTOCRACY

POL 059 CORRUPTION

POL 060 INSTITUTIONS

POL 061 THE WORLD ORDER

POL 062 THE NATION STATE

POL 063 NATIONALITY

POL 064 NATIONAL INTEREST

POL 065 IMPERIALISM

POL 066	<u>COLONIALISM</u>
POL 067	<u>COLLECTIVE SECURITY</u>
POL 068	<u>DIPLOMACY</u>
POL 069	<u>NEUTRALITY</u>
POL 070	<u>AGGRESSION</u>
POL 071	<u>CONFLICT AND WAR</u>
POL 072	<u>SANCTION</u>
POL 073	<u>SECRECY AND PROPAGANDA</u>
POL 074	<u>DETERRENCE</u>

"The roles of deterrence is not a uniquely new mission for the military establishment. The balance of power formula operates when it does because the military establishment is prepared to fight effectively and immediately. With the increase in the importance of deterrence of hostilities, the military elite become more and more involved in diplomatic and political warfare, regardless of their preparation for such tasks. Yet, the specific and unique contribution of the military to deterrence is the plausible threat of violence, a threat which can be taken seriously because of the real possibilities of violence. Old or new types of weapons do not alter this basic formula. Effective deterrence is, in

part, a political strategy. It is also a question of military decision-making - namely, the maintenance of an establishment prepared for combat."⁹

POL 075 MILITARY/DOMESTIC TRADEOFFS

"Actually armies have always been expensive. The real or imagined imperatives of war and diplomacy have always had to compete with the unmet domestic needs of any particular society. What appears new about this competition to the present generation of concerned people is their belief that they have suddenly discovered this truth for the very first time in history."¹⁰

POL 076 OTHER CONCEPTS

POL 077 IDEOLOGY

POL 078 THE POWER ELITE

POL 079 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Catherine the Great of Russia was given some ideas for reform of the government by a philosopher. She told him, "Ah, my dear friend, you write upon paper, the smooth surface of which presents no obstacle to your pen. But I, poor Empress that I am, must write on the skins of my subjects which are sensitive and ticklish to an extraordinary degree."¹¹

"Whatever happens on any particular campus or group of campuses, the fact is that we have needed more officers than the military academies and OCS could produce before and during the Vietnam War., and we shall probably need them after that war even if our future military posture and commitments are drastically reduced. The fact is, too, that while some colleges are moving to banish ROTC, others are waiting to receive it

ROTC will remain in this country for some time, whatever its form and whatever its name. Do we, then, want to recruit all of our college-trained officers from only certain sections of the country, with only certain kinds of political and social views, and from only certain universities that, unjustly, or not, do not have the reputation, prestige, and intellectual excellence of the institutions that have removed or will remove ROTC from their hallowed halls and lawns? Even if it were physically and economically possible for us to get all of our officers from the service academies, would we really want to do so?

I think not. Instead, . . . I worry about the 'inborn and conservative' education of most of our Academy trained generals and Admirals."¹²

POL 081

CIVILIAN CONTROL OF THE MILITARY

"The effectiveness of our political 'failsafe' system does not lie in the fact that the commander of a loaded Strategic Air Command bomber is physically or technically unable to fly over Washington and threaten its destruction if the civilian government refuses to resign. It lies rather in the fact that such an act for him is simply unthinkable. And this is so, I believe, because if the professional American military man learns nothing else in the academies and other service educational institutions to which he is exposed, he learns to respect and accept the concept of civilian, that is, presidential and congressional, control of the military. Whether the President and Congress are always willing to assert and defend this concept is another question. But I am convinced that to the extent that this basic constitutional concept is being eroded by domestic men rather than by foreign events, these men are more often civilians, both in and out of Congress, who are usually, but not always, found rather far to the right of the political spectrum."¹³

POL 082

CONTRACTS

POL 083

HAMMERABIC CODE

ANTHROPOLOGY CONCEPTS

A 001	<u>CULTURE</u>
A 002	<u>UNIVERSAL ASPECTS OF CULTURE</u>
A 003	<u>ACCULTURATION</u>
A 004	<u>RELIGIOUS SYSTEMS</u>
A 005	<u>MATERIAL CULTURE</u>
A 006	<u>LANGUAGE</u>
A 007	<u>KINSHIP</u>
A 008	<u>SYMBOLS</u>
A 009	<u>FOLKLORE</u>
A 010	<u>RITUAL</u>
A 011	<u>CULTURAL RELATIVITY AND BEHAVIOR</u>
<p>" . . . behavior and experience must be evaluated in their cultural content. No behavior is intrinsically good or bad, normal or deviant, healthy or disturbed; only when one's culture deems an act deviant is it deviant."¹⁴</p>	
A 012	<u>CULTURAL RELATIVITY</u>
A 013	<u>THE AMERICAN CULTURE</u>

A 014

CULTURAL AGGRESSION IN AMERICA

"Turning to the occupational situation in America, it too seems to invite both reactive aggression and displacement. Standards of achievement are so high (every son is ordinarily expected to surpass his father in wealth and prestige) that failure and frustration frequently result. Yet the occupational situation that instigates aggression fails to provide any legitimate outlets at all.

One might say of Western society in general that aggression is sharply inhibited from direct expression within the very groups which generate it. There is, as a result, an immense amount of irritation ready for displacement. When we consider the commonness of frustration within family and occupation, and the amount of repression required to prevent inconvenient expressions of hostility, we may wonder that so many people escape developing out-group prejudice."¹⁵

A 015

CULTURAL NORMS AND SANCTIONS

A 016

CHANGE IN FAMILIES AND IN ORGANIZATIONS

There is a parallel between a need for rapid change in an organization and a need to eliminate the obsolete influence of elders in the family circle. In both cases there is a need for flexibility. The organization achieves it by retiring senior, older employees. The family does it by deciding to live apart from the grandparents. Both are then

free to change without the restrictions of the older person's annoying traits, memories, and outdated relationships. Forced retirement and homes for the aged are inventions of the young.¹⁶

A 017 NATIONAL CHARACTER

A 018 SOCIAL MOVEMENT

A 019 THE GENERATION GAP

Margaret Mead presented her anthropological explanation of the generation gap in a small book in 1969. She showed her cultural explanation for the lack of mutual understanding between young and old.

She divided society into three different cultural types - postfigurative, cofigurative, and prefigurative. Postfigurative cultures are those in which the children learn mostly from their forebears. In cofigurative cultures, both the children and the adults learn mostly from their peers and contemporaries. In the prefigurative culture, the adults also learn from their children. She associates these three types with the past, the present, and the future respectively.

The Past

In a postfigurative culture, the people tend to look to the past in the form of their forebears for authority and knowledge of life. Change is so slow as to be unnoticed. The living grandfather and father can foresee no different

life for the new baby than their own. Indeed, they will naturally shape the child so as to make this destiny come true. Because the elders cannot conceive of change in their life, they can only pass on their conviction of the changeless nature of existence. Knowledge about life comes from elders, who convey their sense of continuity so completely that the children adopt it as their fundamental identity.

She states that every culture depends on the living presence of at least three generations. The reason for this is that much of the culture is unanalyzed and requires the example provided by three generations as a basis for identity. For postfigurative culture, this is particularly true. Such people reinforce their generational dependence in a thousand small ways. Their customs, traditions, gestures, mannerisms, reactions all echo each other and cause their belief to be more deeply ingrained and rigid.

Among the examples she gives of this cultural form is that of the immigrant to the United States. Many of them settled together with others from their old culture in states where they could duplicate as much of their old environment as possible.

The Present

No societies have always been only cofigurative. There exists a postfigurative core as well. Cofiguration occurs when some dramatic event causes a sharp change from the past which cannot be explained away in a postfigurative sense.

Examples are conquest, religious conversion, immigration, and new technology. Such breaks cause circumstances for which the elders have no knowledge or experience. In its simplest case, there are no elders present, only the nuclear (meaning nucleus) family. In the absence of elders or of their competence to teach, relative to the new situation, the young turn to their contemporaries as the only model available by which to judge behavior. Often, in essentially postfigurative societies, the cofigurative style lasts only long enough to incorporate the new ways into the culture. Then it reverts back to being totally postfigurative. In modern, more complex societies, change is not uncommon, and there is a sense of both change and changelessness. Parents may expect the lives of their children to be a little different from their own, but not fundamentally different. The degree to which young people look to their parents for answers is greatly determined by how much relevance they perceive their parents to have with respect to the present world and the future world they will live in. In the immigrant example, the grandparents will always be thought of as immigrants and representatives of a before somewhere else. As the old lose the power of knowledge and sanctions they once had, the young find it easier to treat them with less respect and to turn their backs on them as soon as they can. Modern education and the means for upward social mobility can act to make humble parents even a source of embarrassment and a hindrance to their ambitious offspring.

The Future

Dr. Mead believes that the changes in the world brought about by technological advances to date make the past and configurative mechanisms inadequate. As of 1970, change in the world is so rapid that in a larger sense adults will learn from the children from now on. She feels that parents cannot accept the fact that the world of their children is in fact going to be fundamentally different from theirs culturally and that their parental model is not the full answer. She says, "Even very recently, the elders could say: 'You know, I have been young and you have never been old.' But today's young people can reply: 'You never have been young in the world I am young in, and you never can be.' This is the common experience of pioneers and their children. In this sense, all of us who were born and reared before the 1940's are immigrants. Like first-generation pioneers, we were reared to have skills and values that are only partly appropriate in this new time, but we are the elders who still command the techniques of government and power. And like immigrant pioneers from colonizing countries, we cling to the belief that the children will, after all, turn out to be much like ourselves. But balancing this hope there is the fear that the young are being transformed into strangers before our eyes, that teenagers gathered at a street corner are to be feared like the advance guard of an invading Army."¹⁷

ECONOMICS CONCEPTS

E 001	<u>ECONOMICS</u>
E 002	<u>ECONOMIC GOOD</u>
E 003	<u>SCARCE RESOURCES</u>
E 004	<u>SUBSISTANCE ECONOMY</u>
E 005	<u>MACROECONOMICS</u>
E 006	<u>MARKETS</u>
E 007	<u>UTILITY</u>
E 008	<u>AGGREGATE</u>
E 010	<u>THE MARGINAL PRINCIPLE</u>
E 011	<u>GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT</u>
E 012	<u>SUPPLY</u>
E 013	<u>DEMAND</u>
E 014	<u>INFLATION AND DEFLATION</u>
E 015	<u>FISCAL POLICY</u>
E 016	<u>UNEMPLOYMENT</u>
E 017	<u>THE FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM</u>
E 018	<u>MONEY</u>

E 019	<u>MONETARY POLICY</u>
E 020	<u>UNEMPLOYMENT</u>
E 021	<u>GOLD/SILVER STANDARD</u>
E 022	<u>INTEREST RATE</u>
E 023	<u>DISCOUNT RATE</u>
E 024	<u>THE PARADOX OF THRIFT</u>
E 025	<u>MICROECONOMICS</u>
E 026	<u>AMERICAN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY</u>
E 027	<u>PERFECT COMPETITION</u>
E 028	<u>MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION</u>
E 029	<u>MONOPOLY</u>
E 030	<u>OLIGOPOLY</u>
E 031	<u>CONGLOMERATES</u>
E 032	<u>CAPITAL</u>
E 033	<u>DEPRECIATION</u>
E 034	<u>SHORT RANGE/LONG RANGE</u>
E 035	<u>INVENTORY</u>

E 036	<u>ECONOMIES OF SCALE</u>
E 037	<u>REDISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH</u>
E 038	<u>THE CORPORATION</u>
E 039	<u>STOCKS/BONDS/NOTES</u>
E 040	<u>INVESTMENT</u>
E 041	<u>CREDIT</u>
E 042	<u>OPPORTUNITY COST</u>
E 043	<u>BALANCE OF PAYMENTS</u>
E 044	<u>SPECIALIZATION</u>
E 045	<u>NATIONAL DEBT</u>

MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS

M 001 BRIEF HISTORY OF MANAGEMENT

M 002 MANAGEMENT

M 003 A DISCIPLINE OF MANAGEMENT

"No book will ever make a wise man out of a donkey or a genius out of an incompetent. The foundation in a academic discipline, however, gives to today's competent physician a capacity to perform well beyond the ablest doctor of a century ago, and enables the outstanding physician of today to do what the medical genius of yesterday could hardly have dreamt of. No academic discipline can lengthen a man's arm. But it can lengthen his reach by hoisting him on the shoulders of his predecessors. Knowledge organized in a discipline does a good deal for the merely competent, it endows him with some effectiveness. It does infinitely more for the truly able; it endows him with excellence."¹

M 004 BASIC MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS

M 005 PRIORITY

M 006 EFFICIENCY

Efficiency is that condition which results in the accomplishment of objectives with the minimum undesired cost and consequences. It demands no waste or carelessness. Efficiency can be represented most simply by the ratio of $\frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}}$.

If there is no loss in a process, the ratio is 1 (100%) and it is perfectly efficient. As loss increases, the output will be equivalently less and efficiency will decrease.

M 007

CHANGE

"It staggers our imagination to realize that 95% of all the scientists and engineers who have ever existed from the beginning of history are alive and hard at work today. The sheer bulk of their annual work is overwhelming and guarantees that the place of innovation, invention, and the onset of change will speed up, not slow down."²

M 008

PREDICTABILITY

M 009

RESPONSIBILITY

Responsibility is a relationship between two agents where one is obliged to perform certain duties and the other judges the performance and punishes failure. Responsibility is often thought of, particularly in the military, as a sense of duty where the responsible person will carry out his duty to the best of his ability without supervision by anyone. In fact, such a person constructs a supervisor within himself in the form of a conscience, and his conscience does the judging and punishes failure.³

Not only are subordinates responsible to superiors, but superiors usually have responsibilities to or for the men

responsible to them. This responsibility down can be, for example, stating clear requirements, providing proper resources, or providing an appropriate working environment. Further, subordinates can judge and punish superiors who fail to meet their responsibility to their men. Strikes, low productivity, disciplinary problems, and other such inefficiencies often occur as punishment to irresponsible superiors. One reason that this happens even though one man is indeed senior to the other, is that any two men come together as equals in the contractual sense just because they are men (or women). Because of this equality, there must be reciprocity. Subordinates watch carefully to assure themselves that they are being looked after by their managers. If they are, then they implicitly feel that they are equals in the light of the moral contract between superior and subordinate. They feel at least the minimum dignity and esteem to which they have a right.⁴

In writing about responsibility, Patterson states, "When a manager gives a command to the operative under his control he is saying (although he does not use these precise words), 'You will do this', The order is rightful, it is categorically necessary for the achievement of the purpose of the firm, this being the total benefit of the enterprise including men, managers and shareholders. The operative has no choice if he proposes to remain within the group into which he has contracted; he must obey or suffer retribution of some

kind. The manager is saying, 'You will do this', implying, 'Otherwise I shall punish you, which I am entitled to do'.

When a manager gives an operative a command he is concerned with the man's function and the need for the fulfillment of that function and of relating it to the others of the firm. However, in giving a command, the manager does not necessarily say that the operative will carry out the function in a particular fashion, that is, perform his procedures in a particular fashion. The manager cannot, beyond certain limits, control procedures

To be responsible, a man is given, and contracts to assume the freedom to make a choice. He then becomes aware of his responsibility and that he can be punished for failure as a result of the choice he makes. Take away that choice and he becomes a machine and not a man; and this he will reject, . . . "5

If a man is not given at least some discretion in performing his job, it is the same as giving him no choices at all, and, therefore, will feel no responsibility for his job.

M 010

ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability is a relationship between two people, both of whom are responsible to a third person, and in which one person is expected to obey the orders of the other because they are right, but is not obligated to do so. For example, the Captain of the ship tells his Executive Officer

that, because the ship will get underway at 0800, he wants liberty for the crew to expire at 0700. The Executive Officer orders the crew to return to the ship not later than 0700. If a man is late, the Captain can punish him for it because the man is responsible to the Captain for his conduct. The Executive Officer cannot punish the man because the man is only accountable to him for his conduct. The essential difference between responsibility and accountability, then, is the authority to enforce obedience. The manager who holds the responsibility can order the foreman of a work unit to accomplish a certain task with his unit. The foreman is responsible to the manager for the employment of his unit to the task, but if the men do not carry out the orders of the foreman, it is only the manager, to whom they are responsible, who can punish them. The manager can also punish the foreman for failure to complete the task. The foreman however cannot punish the men because he was not given that authority by the manager. The men are only accountable to the foreman, who can expect obedience to his lawful orders, but who cannot enforce them. The foreman can demand an accounting of performance to his orders from any of his men. (Frequently accountability is defined too narrowly as only this requirement to report to a superior what has been done in response to his order.) Responsibility includes accountability, but accountability does not include responsibility.⁶

An important point to grasp is that there are these two forms of control, responsibility and accountability. Many managers fail to understand the difference between the two, and it causes or contributes to many of their personal problems. Patterson describes the diadic and the triadic systems where diadic refers to a scalar system or chain of command. Each member has the power to demand obedience to lawful orders, and accordingly subordinates are responsible only to the next superior in the chain of command. In the triadic system, orders flow down, but accountability causes certain intermediate superiors in the chain to be left out where responsibility is concerned. There are situations where one system may be preferable to the other, and it must be noted that management decides which to use. Patterson sees a trend to use triadic systems in the lower levels of organizations. He states, "This development of the triadic system at lower levels leaves a problem not only for junior managers but the middle and senior managers as well. Some industrialists have been quoted in the papers as saying that 'foremen are not as good as they used to be', meaning that they are unable to keep control of their workmen as their predecessors did. The fault lies in the managers who have reacted to the modern trend and have instituted triadic systems, without doing anything to help the juniors who have to learn the behavior appropriate to this system. The foreman's 'teeth' are being drawn, and one of the problems of the present day is how to

teach the foreman to behave in this system, and how to get men to obey him when he is not empowered. This is only part of the problem of human relations for the foreman and it is also, in part, the basis of the peculiar concept, 'persuasive authority'. Since foremen in the triadic system cannot enforce an order, they presumably have to use persuasion. The only form of force they may use is vocal, just as the N.C.O. tends to be vocal.

Some foremen adopt a lower-deck outlook, aligning themselves with the workmen as 'we' against 'they.' This leads to all kinds of problems of lower productivity, of absenteeism and so on, and of lack of coordination with other departments. . . . Sometimes, by devious means, a foreman will obtain concessions for his men without regard to others, and a differential is then set up which leads to constant trouble for senior managers. Of course, we, as managers, have to fight for the welfare of the men in our departments because it is our responsibility to them, but we cannot fight for them at the expense of other members of the organism; for the total purpose would then be endangered.

Another technique is the rewarding of 'conforming' operatives with 'juicy jobs' . . . a foreman may see to it that, acting in the light of his responsibilities downwards in getting the facilities for his men, he diverts special facilities to the conforming members away from the men he regards as difficult. Conversely, he may put obstacles in

the way of the non-conforming, difficult members in his sphere of authority.

Lastly, there is the phenomenon of 'passing the buck'. The bosses of foremen constantly find that they have to take action on their behalf, because the foremen are unable to 'cope'. It is, in general, this 'passing of the buck' which tends to develop the idea that foreman are not what they were. Under this same heading comes the sanction - the threat so often used by insecure formen - 'I'll see to it you get into trouble'

There is a kind of backlash to all this. There appears to be a general feeling that the foreman must be supported at all costs, even though they may be wrong in giving non-rightful orders or incorrect orders in coordinating procedures. In the Services, there is a tradition of the same kind. A junior officer or N.C.O. must not be 'told off' in front of the other ranks, who should never be given a chance to see that officers can disagree. The superior who establishes a triadic system and also believes in this 'support at all costs' puts himself in a very difficult position. He has the responsibility for providing facilities for the foreman to carry out that for which he is responsible, and 'support' is certainly a facility. Yet he cannot avoid his own direct responsibility to the foreman's subordinates, and justice and fairness are due to them."

M 011

POLICY

M 012

POLICY I

Policies are specified guidelines within which activities are to be carried out. They are composed of two components: rule and action. The rule provides the guide for the action indicated.⁸

M 013

POLICY-MAKING GUIDELINES

While policies can suffer from the application of a set of rules, there are basic guidelines that can be useful in policymaking. According to one authority these are:

"1. Policies should be in harmony with the economic, political, and social environment of a company. Changes are constantly taking place in the ethical values of society as well as in the laws and regulations of government. . . .

2. Policies must reflect the internal organization of a business Policies clearly should coincide with statements of individual authority and responsibility.

3. Policies predominantly must be based upon and effectively and efficiently guide the organization in achieving its network of aims. Policies should provide the proper coordination among functions, physical factors, personnel factors, and other forces operating in a business, in meeting business aims. Policies must assure consistent action over time.

4. The locus of authority to make different type policies should be clear. . .

5. Participation in policy-making as in planning, is likely to produce beneficial results

6. Policies should be developed on the basis of as good a factual basis as possible. While judgement obviously is a major ingredient in policy-making it is important that, in the analysis of the need for and use to be made of policy, fact be separated from opinion.

7. Policies should be stated as simply and unequivocally as possible and appropriate to the level of policy. Policies should be operational in the sense that they guide and influence specific performance

8. Policies should complement and supplement one another.

9. A policy should be comprehensive enough to cover a range of actions over a normal span of variations in business activity

10. The policy structure should be based upon definitions of terms

11. The policy structure should be reasonably comprehensive and cover major areas of importance to a company. . . .

12. The basic policy structure should be reasonably stable

13. Policies should be written and made available to executives who need to know what they are

17. Policies should be reviewed systematically for obsolescence."⁹

Coordination is the "achievement of harmony of individual effort toward the accomplishment of group goals" It can be thought of as the essence of managership. It is needed because people involved together in a common endeavor often do not naturally act in synchronization. Whenever more than one person works together toward a common goal without natural harmony, agreement, and synchronization, one of them or a third person must resolve the difference. Doing so is coordination, and the person who does it is essentially a manager.¹⁰

M 018 OBJECTIVITY

M 019

MORALITY

M 020

WORK

M 021

THE FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

Each management authority states his own unique list of management functions. While the names differ, the actual functions described are nearly always:

Planning

Organizing

Staffing

Directing

Controlling

These five functions provide a good general outline for any comprehensive discussion of the field of management. Subsequent concepts do just that. To explain them a little more specifically:

1. Planning - this is determining what work must be done. It includes such tasks as:

- a. Defining roles and mission
- b. Forecasting
- c. Setting objectives
- d. Programming action
- e. Scheduling
- f. Budgeting
- g. Policy-making
- h. Developing procedures

2. Organizing - this is classifying the work into manageable units. It includes establishing:

- a. Structure
- b. Integration

3. Staffing - this is the placing of the best qualified people in the work positions that need to be filled. It includes:

- a. Recruiting
- b. Selection
- c. Training
- d. Appraisal
- e. Promotion
- f. Compensation
- g. Retirement

4. Directing - this also called leading or commanding. It is the bringing about of the human activity through work to achieve the desired objectives. It includes;

- a. Assigning
- b. Motivating
- c. Communicating
- d. Coordinating

5. Controlling - this causes the effective accomplishment of the desired objectives. It does so by:

- a. Establishing standards of performance.
- b. Measuring actual performance.
- c. Taking action to decrease the variance between standard and actual performance.¹¹

In its most exclusive sense, planning is estimating the future means to be used to reach a future objective. Planning may be simple or complex, depending on the nature of the means available and the objective desired in the end.

The basic steps in planning could be:

1. Set goals and objectives.
2. Establish policies.
3. Develop the plans.
4. Make a statement of implementing procedures.

Some concepts which could be employed in the planning process are:

1. Efficiency
2. Timing
3. Priority
4. Alternatives
5. Policy
6. Flexibility
7. Structure
8. Costs
9. Factual Data
10. Simplicity
11. Scope
12. Completeness
13. Coordination

When completed, a plan should answer the questions

WHO?

WHAT?

WHERE?

WHEN?

HOW?

WHY?

One way of categorizing planning is by the time horizon, long or short. The time difference between long and short may be days or years, as the situation requires. Long range planning tends to require more thought and conceptualizing because in the long term pertinent factors are more vague, speculative and uncertain. In general, both long and short range planning go on continuously, and the plans are updated as factors relating to specific items become more certain or better defined. In an environment of constant change, the interrelation of long and short range plans is particularly strong in that a change affecting one plan may result in one or many other plans being in need of change too. As can be seen, planning could, under certain circumstances, become a very complex and costly function. In such cases, the benefits gained from the planning effort must be sufficient to warrant the outlay of resources.

Within a specific enterprise, all plans must be supporting, as appropriate, if only that they all contribute to the overall purpose of the enterprise. Although many ways of

classifying plans can be conceived, the one selected by Terry is comprehensive and illustrative. He describes eight different kinds of plans as follows:

Objective - Provides target for direction and guidance of activities.

Policy - Sets up the overall boundaries for activities.

Procedure - Defines chronological series of tasks.

Method - Prescribes course of action to accomplish a task.

Standard - Gives level of expected achievement.

Budget - For a given period, consolidates many operational expentancies into a concise format.

Program - Integrates diverse but related activities into a unity.

Techno-factor - assists in visualizing probable effect of selected factor."¹²

M 023

GOALS FORGONE

When the goals and objectives are chosen for an organization, they also imply the goals and objectives that have not been chosen or that are precluded. In choosing goals, it is well to consider the ramifications each can have so as to identify what other goals you may be denying yourself. For example, an operational unit may select a goal of reducing fuel consumption by 10 percent during the next quarter. Conceivably, the following other potential objectives could be foregone as a result:

1. To improve underway training
2. To conduct gunnery exercises
3. To successfully pass the operational readiness inspection next month
4. To conduct a full power run
5. To improve morale

M 024 TECHNOLOGY

M 025 BUDGETS

M 026 THE ENVIRONMENT

M 027 INTERNAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION

1. Formal controls
2. Systematic audits
3. Oral and written reports
4. Directives
5. Suggestions
6. Recommendations
7. Requests
8. Concepts¹³

M 028 ORGANIZING

When people combine their individual abilities to reach common objectives, their efforts must be coordinated in order to be effective. Organizing is the process of determining

and designing this coordination by establishing the necessary organizational roles and relationships into a structure.¹⁴

The basic steps in organizing are:

- "1. establishment of enterprise objectives
2. formulation of derivative objectives, policies and plans
3. identification and classification of activities necessary to accomplish these
4. grouping these activities in the light of human and material resources available and the best way of using them
5. delegating to the head of each group the authority necessary to perform the activities; and
6. tying these groupings together horizontally and vertically through authority relationships and information systems."¹⁵

M 029

ORGANIZATION ROLES

". . . there can be no doubt that good people and those who want to cooperate will work together more effectively if they know the part they are to play in any collaborative endeavor and how their roles relate to each other. This is as true in business or government as it is in football or baseball. To design and maintain these systems of roles is basically the managerial function of organizing.

For an organization role to exist and to be meaningful to people, it must incorporate (1) verifiable objectives which, . . . are the task of planning; (2) a clear concept of the major duties or activities involved; and (3) an understood area of discretion, or authority, so that the person filling it knows what he can do to accomplish results. In addition, to make a role operational, provision should be made for needed information and where and how it may be obtained.

It is in the sense of a structure of roles that formal organization is conceived. It is within this connotation that we think of organizing as the grouping of activities necessary to attain objectives, the assignment of each grouping to a manager with authority necessary to supervise it, and the provision for coordination horizontally and vertically in the enterprise structure. An organization structure should be designed to clarify the environment so that everyone knows who is to do what and who is responsible for what results."¹⁶

M 030

MISSION

M 031

FUNCTION

M 032

CONTROL

M 033

PERSISTENCE

M 034

FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS

M 035	<u>INSTITUTIONS</u>
M 036	<u>BUREAUCRACY</u>
M 037	<u>RULES</u>
M 038	<u>INSTITUTIONALIZING</u>
M 039	<u>CAREERISM</u>
M 040	<u>NEPOTISM</u>
M 041	<u>INFORMAL ORGANIZATIONS</u>
M 042	<u>THE GRAPEVINE</u>
M 043	<u>PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION</u>

Various authorities over the years have stated many different principles, most of them observations from experience, which provide criteria for good organizing. They tend to overlap and to be mutually supporting. Listed below are some of those having wide consensus and acceptance among managers.

1. The Scalar Principle
2. Division of Labor
3. Delegation of Authority
4. Departmentation
5. Span of Control
6. Unity of Command
7. Unity of Objective

8. Functional Definition
9. Centralization vs Decentralization
10. Homogeneity of Assignment¹⁷

M 044

CHAIN OF COMMAND

M 045

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

To delegate is to grant or confer. When a person possesses authority, the power to act in a designated area, he can grant or confer some or all of his power to act on another person. If he delegated all of his authority to another, he would, in effect, give away his position and the recipient would replace him as the single holder of the same amount of authority. Clearly, there is no benefit in doing that, but there is difficulty too in retaining all authority. To do so would mean that one person made every decision and exercised complete control of all action. This is impossible to do in any but relatively simple activities. When work and labor must be divided to accomplish objectives, when people are assigned duties for which they are to be held responsible, then the holder of authority must delegate authority to subordinates commensurate with the responsibilities for his work, he must be given an adequate degree of discretion and power to act. Otherwise, he will not feel any obligation for the job.

Without delegation of authority, organization is not possible. With delegation, each manager in the organization can work effectively, within his span of control. By

delegating some of his authority, a manager diminishes none of his own. Like responsibility, authority can be shared, but, in so doing, it is not surrendered. Delegated authority may be taken back. It may be specific or general, verbal or written, implicit or explicit, but it should be absolutely clear and understood by both parties if serious problems are to be avoided. For this reason, written delegations of authority are usually the safest.¹⁸

Because authority is power, it is often retained by superiors who, for various reasons, are reluctant to part with it. Some of these reasons are:

1. A tendency to want to do things themselves.
2. Fear of having a managerial shortcoming exposed.
3. Fear that the subordinate may perform better than the superior does.
4. Unwillingness to accept the risks or the fact of subordinate errors and their impact on the reputation of the organization and the superior.
5. A feeling by the superior that he is the indispensable man. Delegating can hurt his ego and self-esteem.
6. The desire to dominate affairs and people. Thriving under pressure and gaining fulfillment from being very busy lends a feeling of self-importance.
7. Fear of losing a valued subordinate who would be promoted up and out if given more opportunity.

8. Subordinates who won't accept authority, but pass it back up to the senior.

9. A lack of genuine receptiveness for the ideas of others which delegation stimulates.

10. A tendency for a promoted manager to want to continue to make all of the decisions for the last job he held rather than delegate to the incumbent.

11. A deficiency in planning by the superior such that delegation would cause him to have insufficient feedback and, therefore, inadequate controls.

M 046

SPAN OF CONTROL

Sometimes called span of management or span of authority, span of control refers to the "number of immediate subordinates that report to a manager." It is an obvious concern of organizing because a decision must be made as to how many people a particular manager can manage. A great many studies have been done to try to find the limit, but there is no agreement. The findings show that successful organizations have spans of control from two to thirty or more. The conclusion is that, while there is a limit to the number of subordinates a manager can manage, that number varies in each situation. It depends on such factors as the ability of the manager, the nature of the work, the motivation of the subordinates, and the personalities involved. In general, the smaller the span of control, that is the smaller the number of subordinates

a particular manager has reporting to him, the easier it is for him to manage them effectively and efficiently. The span at top levels tends to be small (3 - 8) and the span at lower levels tends to be larger.²⁰

A distinction can be made between the natures of executive supervision and operational supervision. The first is generally mental and personal, where the second is more physical, multipersonal, or well defined. Where this is true, the span of control will probably be greater in the operational environment for the same management difficulty as an executive with a lower span of control.²¹

The underlying factor that limits the size of the span of control is the time the manager must spend with his subordinates. Depending on the number of subordinates, the complexity of the manager's relationships with them can increase geometrically. This was vividly shown by Graicunas in 1933. He calculated that the number of possible relationships the manager had for each number of subordinates increased as follows:²²

<u>Subordinates</u>	<u>Relationships</u>
1	1
2	6
3	18
4	44
5	100
10	5214
18	2,359,602

There are seven general factors that can greatly influence the amount of time managers must spend on their

subordinates. The span of control that is possible can vary significantly depending on these factors.

1. The amount of training and experience the subordinates have had. Shortcomings here demand more of the manager's time.

2. Delegation of Authority. Inadequate and unclear delegation are common and cause just the kind of confusion and manager involvement that delegation of authority is designed to prevent.

3. Proper organizational planning. Execution of inadequate plans by subordinates will surely involve the manager in time consuming crises and interpretations. The properly made and promulgated plan should free the manager from details, not create more of them.

4. The rate of change in the organization. It is much easier for a manager to supervise a large number of subordinates involved in a routine, unchanging, familiar operation than it is in a new field full of unpredictability and new frontiers.

5. Use of objective control techniques. Managers who use the most appropriate control devices and techniques to find out whether their subordinates are using plans properly will have more time available than the manager who must meet with his subordinates to find out the same information.

6. Judicious use of communications techniques. The manager can choose the proper techniques of communicating information to and from his subordinates and save time for

himself. If he mischooses communications methods and requirements, he can greatly increase his personal time spent in clarifying information. The choices can result in too much information up or down as well as too little. The "need-to-know" determination is most important here.

7. Amount of Personal Contact. There is certain need for some degree of personal contact between manager and his subordinates. The optimum choice must be made.²³

M 047

UNITY OF COMMAND

Unity, or oneness, of command is the principle that the best superior-subordinate relationship is where only one superior exercises personal command over a subordinate. The simplicity of such a relationship makes responsibility clear, makes clear the source of orders and of assistance, makes the delegation of authority simple, and permits direct evaluation of the job done. As disunity or multiplicity of command occurs, the potential for confusion and problems over responsibility, authority and effectiveness increases. It is difficult to have more than one boss for the same job without conflict.

As organizations become more complex, they make it more difficult to maintain unity of command everywhere. While this may be true, it does not in any way preclude the consequences from occurring. The principle should be kept in mind at least to the extent of reminding managers to keep reporting

relationships with subordinates clear and to ensure that their subordinates know the effect they have on the rest of the organization.²⁴

M 048

UNITY OF OBJECTIVE

The form and manner in which an enterprise is organized must have as its criterion its effectiveness in achieving the objectives of the organization. If everyone in the organization is able to work effectively toward these goals, unity of objective is achieved, and the organization is effective.³⁵

M 049

DIVISION OF LABOR

Division of Labor (sometimes called division of work) is the logical step of using more than one person to perform a task, where the task is divided or classified into separate subtasks based on the nature of the task and the abilities of the workers available. In some cases division of labor allows completion of work that a single person could not do, such as building a skyscraper. In other cases, it can speed up and make more efficient work on a task that one person could eventually do himself, such as building a house or even making shoes. A few moments of reflection will make obvious that the sophistication and complexity of modern business and industry would be impossible without division of labor. Placing a man on the moon is perhaps the greatest single example of division of labor and what it can help accomplish.

If work is divided, it can usually be done more efficiently; but division can be carried so far that the nature of the task of an individual worker is so simple and easy to perform that he becomes bored and dissatisfied. Overdivision of labor often can be remedied by job enlargement, where the job is broadened and widened to make it more challenging and conducive to pride in the effort expended by the worker.²⁶

M 050

DEPARTMENTATION

Departmentation is the organizing technique of grouping managers at the same level of an organization to achieve coordinated effort and of dividing authority and responsibility among them.²⁷

As the workload and complexity increases in an organization, departmentation allows tasks to be logically divided and efforts coordinated within a manageable group. There are a large variety of methods of departmenting an organization. Often more than one method is used in a given structure. Some of the chief means of departmentation are:

1. By Function - This groups people based upon the general activity or specialty they perform such as on a warship, weapons, operations, engineering, and supply.
2. By Product (or Output) - this is most often used in a manufacturing company producing multiple products.
3. By Territory (or geographic location) - examples of this grouping are naval bases and naval recruiting stations.

4. By Customer (or User) - an example of this method is a Navy Exchange departmentation based on classifications of customer such as sundries, uniform, shoe, etc.

5. By Process (or Equipment Type) - for example, in a naval shipyard, punching, welding, assembling, finishing a metal product.

6. By Numbers - This refers to the number of people being the significant grouping factor. An example is the fixed number of men in a standard platoon.

7. By Time - Most often this takes the form of watches or shifts.

8. By Task Force - this is a special group of limited life brought together for a specific, one-time purpose.

9. By Matrix - this is a relatively new form which employs a temporary project manager who has some authority over a cross-section of service functions in the permanent structure as they pertain to his project. It is a compromise between functional and product departmentation made essentially to have one manager responsible for an entire project through to its completion.²⁸

M 051

THE SCALAR PRINCIPLE

Because of the process of delegation of authority as an organization grows, the vertical (or scalar) line of authority often becomes unclear. The scalar principle says that the clearer the line of authority vertically from the top to each

subordinate, the more effective will be decision-making and communications in the organization.²⁹

M 052

FUNCTIONAL DEFINITION

Functional definition as applied to a person or a department refers to the degree of clarity which exists as to the function to be carried out. As a principle of both delegation of authority and of departmentation, functional definition means that the clearer the results desired, the plan for accomplishment known, and the authority relationships specified, the better able the person or department can achieve the objective.³⁰

M 053

CENTRALIZATION VS DECENTRALIZATION

Most enterprises begin their life with all of the authority centralized in a few top managers. As the enterprise grows, the problem of too large a span of control forces top management to delegate some of their authority to subordinate managers. At some point in size, a particular organization may find that it is inefficient because there are too many layers or very long lines of communication in the structure. Decentralization may be the solution to this problem. It is closely linked to delegation of authority except that rather than a temporary conferring of authority on an individual, decentralization is the permanent placing of authority in the holders of a particular billet or position. It is a recognition on the part of

top management that subordinate managers must be given the power to make more decisions and to commit the organization to certain obligations. Many senior managers find it very difficult to let go of their power. On the other hand, there are instances where organizations have decentralized when they should not have. In times of crisis, tight money, or rapid change, recentralization usually takes place because the criticality of decision-making may relate to the very survival of the organization. The decision to decentralize, how much to decentralize, and where to do it, then, must be made after careful analysis of the situation.³¹

Some important advantages to centralization and to decentralization are as follows:

Advantages of Centralization

1. Uniformity of policies, practices, and decisions are fostered.
2. Full utilization of the main office specialists is promoted, due in large part to their proximity to the top management level.
3. Highly qualified specialists can be utilized because the scope and volume of their work are sufficient to support and to challenge topnotch managers.
4. Duplication of functions is maintained at a minimum.
5. Elaborate and extensive controlling procedures and practices are not required.

Advantages of Decentralization

1. A decentralized organization structure stresses delegation of authority and relieves the top managers' load.
2. The development of 'generalists' rather than specialists is encouraged, thereby facilitating succession into positions of general managers.
3. Intimate personal ties and relationships are promoted resulting in greater employee enthusiasm and coordination.
4. Efficiency is increased since the structure can be viewed 'as a whole' so that trouble spots can be located and remedied easily.
5. Plans can be tried out on an experimental basis in one plant, modified, and proven before being supplied to similar plants of a company.
6. Risks involving possible losses of personnel, facilities, and plants are spread out.³²

Frequently, people use the words centralization and decentralization to mean physical concentration or dispersion of organizational assets. In general, when physical assets or employees are centralized, then authority is usually centralized too, but when they are decentralized, the authority may be either centralized or decentralized.³³

M 054 HOMOGENIETY OF ASSIGNMENT

M 055 INTEGRATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

M 056 DIFFERENTIATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

M 057

WORK GROUPS

M 058

TEAMS

M 059

THE TASK FORCE

M 060

DIRECTING

Perhaps more than the other functions, directing has been given the most attention in recent years. It reflects the increasing recognition that workers are individual human beings, all somewhat different from one another. Theories and techniques have been propounded to better explain human behavior and to improve motivation, productivity and satisfaction on the job. Directing deals with interpersonal aspects of organized work. Toward established goals, directing seeks to develop and maintain effective communication among the workers and to effectively coordinate their efforts. How best to do this is by no means universally agreed upon. Regardless of the merits listed for each viewpoint, the guiding principle in choosing methods of directing must be, "The Work." Identification of the true objectives is important. Direction must always keep the true objectives in view.

M 061

PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

M 062

WHY

M 063

JOB ENRICHMENT

M 064

INCENTIVE

M 065

COMMITTEES

M 066

THE WORKER AS A TOTAL MAN

"The human being is a total man, interested in himself, and therefore conscious of the inputs he receives from external factors, such as family, neighbors, schools, churches, unions or trade associations, political associations, and fraternal groups. He cannot divest himself of the impact of these forces as he presents himself before the firm that employs him. He brings within the gate, and within the work situation, a whole man that is only partially motivated by the need to work. What he cannot do is to leave outside the gate the influences, the ambitions, and the means of satisfaction of many of his natural demands that no firm can satisfy. He may be intent upon family formation, the education of his children, the purchase of a house, his candidacy for political office, or his religious life. None of these concerns can be sloughed off as the worker passes through the gate of the employer's premises, even though he enters the gate solely because he needs an income and has contracted to exchange services for that income. His manager must recognize this fact and be prepared to deal with it."³⁴

M 067

MEETINGS

M 068

COMPENSATION

M 069	<u>LINE AND STAFF</u>
M 070	<u>CULTURE</u>
M 071	<u>THE GENERALIST</u>
M 072	<u>SEMANTICS</u>
M 073	<u>PREJUDICE</u>
M 074	<u>PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL</u>
M 075	<u>LEADERSHIP</u>
M 076	<u>LEADERSHIP VS. MANAGEMENT</u>
M 077	<u>CHARISMA</u>
M 078	<u>HAWTHORNE STUDIES</u>
M 079	<u>CREATIVITY</u>
M 080	<u>ACHIEVEMENT</u>
M 081	<u>MOTIVATIONS</u>
M 082	<u>MCGREGOR'S THEORY X/THEORY Y</u>

Douglas McGregor in his well-known book, The Human Side of Enterprise, proposed two opposite views by different managers of the attitudes of human beings toward work. If a manager believes in theory X, he assumes his workers hold these attitudes:

1. People inherently dislike work and will avoid it if they can.

2. Because people dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened in order to get them to achieve the goals of the organization.

3. The average person prefers to be told what to do, avoids responsibility, has little ambition, and cares about security above all else.

If a manager believes in theory Y, he assumes his workers hold these attitudes:

1. People do not inherently dislike work and can find it satisfying.

2. Positive rewards can motivate people to work and to be committed to the goals of the organization.

3. With good management, people will accept and even seek responsibility and will show self-control.

4. A wide cross section of the population has the capacity and the desire to contribute creativity and ideas to the organization.

5. The intellectual potential of the average person in the modern industrial setting is not being fully used.³⁵

M 083

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Maslow was a humanistic psychologist who propounded a theory of motivation that focused on normal people and which has enjoyed considerable popularity in the management field. According to Maslow, there are basic needs and metaneeds.

The basic needs are deficiency needs and they are arranged in a hierarchy such that some dominate over others. The basic needs are:

1. Physiological needs, such as hunger and thirst, are necessary for the preservation of life. Once satisfied, they no longer act as motivators.
2. Safety needs come next. They are the need for clothing, shelter, job security, pension, insurance, and freedom from danger.
3. Affection needs consist of a need to belong to a group, to be friends with others, to be wanted.
4. Esteem needs are needs for achievement, self-respect, adequacy, prestige, and recognition by others.
5. Self-actualization needs are at the top of the basic needs. It represents a person being all that he is capable of being. To reach his full potential and to be fulfilled.

The metaneeds are, for example, justice, beauty, goodness, order, and unity. They are growth needs, and do not have a hierarchy and are of equal strength.

Maslow said that most people are involved in satisfying their affection and esteem needs, the lower needs being already satisfied. Few people ever reach self-actualization. The hierarchy does not always hold fast, and substitutions or rearrangements can take place. If needs are unfilled, the person can become psychologically ill, according to the theory. An important conclusion is that satisfied needs are no longer motivators.³⁶

Herzberg's research revealed that the factors which make people happy on the job are not the same factors that make people unhappy on the job. Dissatisfiers are factors which relate to job context or job environment, and are called hygiene factors. Satisfiers are factors which relate to job content or job task, and are called motivators. He lists the following ten hygiene factors which, when absent, cause dissatisfaction on the job:

1. Company policy and administration
2. Technical supervision
3. Interpersonal relations with supervisors
4. Interpersonal relations with peers
5. Interpersonal relations with subordinates
6. Salary
7. Job security
8. Personal life
9. Work conditions
10. Status

There are six motivators which, when present, lead to job satisfaction. They are:

1. Achievement
2. Recognition
3. Advancement
4. The work itself

5. The possibility of growth

6. Responsibility

He also found that the effects of the hygiene factors on job attitudes are of short duration, compared to the motivators which have long lasting effects.

M 085

THE THEORY OF
MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVE

Management by Objectives (MBO) is a method which attempts to guide management today in consideration of contemporary environmental and societal realities. As a systems approach to managing any organization, it is flexible and simple. Its essence is to improve an enterprise by involving all key personnel in working toward mutually supportive, result-oriented objectives which satisfy both the needs of the organization and the individual personally. It seeks to "help people manage by objectives and results rather than by crisis, charisma, fear, abdication, or tradition."

It is based upon the premise that managers will be more productive if they are involved with pursuing attainable, measureable goals which they have had a hand in setting, rather than simply generating activity or performing tasks dictated by a superior.

Under MBO, a subordinate is aware of the direction that top management is pointing the organization, and he knows the objective of his immediate superior. He then develops goals

and objectives for himself professionally and in support of the objectives of his superior. He discusses them with his immediate superior, where they are mutually agreed upon. The objectives are then formally written, specific as to what is to be accomplished, when it is to be accomplished, and how its accomplishment is to be measured.

After approving the subordinate's objectives, the superior must then allow him an appropriate measure of freedom to meet the objectives on his own. During this process, the subordinate is being held totally accountable for the results. The supervisor, of course, monitors his progress to the degree that he feels necessary through some form of feedback agreed upon at the objective meeting. As well, he advises and guides the subordinate, passing on his management experience. The subordinate also should have maximum possible control over all of the variables which have an effect on his objectives.

From top management's point of view, managing by objectives in the manner described above gives them an explicit measure of the total effectiveness of their individual managers. Over time, the identification of superior managers is relatively simple. Promotion and reassignment to develop and groom individual managers is an easier task, where performance evaluation is documented in terms of how a manager has completed specific objectives.

Objectives do not and should not cover every detail of a man's job. His job entails many important responsibilities which have to be done well, but which are not the direct concern of MBO.

MBO must be adapted to fit the unique needs of the organization. A training program of some design is necessary to teach the managers about MBO, how it operates, and how their organization has decided to use it. An MBO manual or guide, prepared by the organization also can be useful. In most organizations, a considerable change in attitudes is required under MBO. Top management must engender the feeling that managers are expected to express their ideas wherever they feel they can contribute to the objectives of their superiors. If there is any lack of genuineness on the part of top management in welcoming this openness from subordinates, then no one will believe in the program, and it will fail. Experience has shown that full implementation in any large organization will take from three to five years.

Whether MBO can help an organization is more a question of whether the organization really wants to use the system rather than any total lack of pertinence in the concept. Its widespread, successful use attests to its applicability to contemporary management.

It is much easier to explain MBO theory than to put it into practice. It stands to reason that all things in an organization work better if the top man, the boss, starts them and participates in them too. To start an MBO program with the top manager is the ideal way, and it assures the best possible chance of success. However, a department or a unit head has been known to start an MBO program, gain positive results with it, and to eventually be followed by the entire organization. This can be done as long as the top manager does not object to the idea and has given the lower manager the discretion to manage as he thinks best.³⁸

Either way, the installation process usually should follow these steps:

1. Test for the applicability of MBO. In non-profit organizations, it is best to ensure that MBO is an appropriate form of management. Where MBO was developed for profit-making businesses, it may just be inappropriate for some organizations in the public sector. One expert suggests applicability should be judged on the basis of the number of "yes" answers to the following questions:³⁹

- a. "Does the organization have a mission to perform?
Is there a valid reason for it to exist?

- b. Does management have assets (money, people, plant and equipment) entrusted to it?

c. Is management accountable to some person or authority for a return on assets?

d. Can priorities be established for accomplishing the mission?

e. Can the operation be planned?

f. Does management believe it must manage effectively even though the organization is a non-profit one?

g. Can accountabilities of key personnel be pinpointed?

h. Can the efforts of all key personnel be coordinated into a whole?

i. Can necessary controls and feedback be established?

j. Is it possible to evaluate the performance of key personnel?

k. Is a system of positive and negative rewards possible?

l. Are the main functions of a manager (planning, organizing, directing, etc.) the same regardless of the type of organization?

m. Is management receptive to improved methods of operating?"⁴⁰

2. Plan the implementation strategy.

There must be someone with the sole duty of being in charge of the MBO implementation program. He must be a skilled MBO practitioner with experience in the method and its installation. Organization development change agents,

management development counselors, and general management consultants are the type of people who are best suited to manage such a program. The agent may be either a permanent, internal employee or an external expert retained just for this purpose. Full implementation of an MBO program takes about 3 - 5 years, depending on the size and nature of the organization.

The MBO consultant and his staff must meet with the top manager of the organization and the senior managers who report directly to him to describe the MBO system and how it operates. It is critical that these key executives completely understand MBO and all of its ramifications and requirements. In some cases, the top manager may be the MBO exponent and be a very active part of the program. When the top manager agrees to go ahead with its implementation, a strategy is planned to tailor MBO and its installation to that particular organization in a pragmatic fashion.

Some of the items to be considered in this planning process are listed below:

a. Whether to use a predesigned, packaged-program approach organization-wide in a shotgun fashion, or to emphasize it as a process of managing, seeking implementation in one "family" group at a time. Many feel that the best way is by offering it as a process for managers to "own" and form to their particular needs, rather than make it a task, another training program to take up their time.⁴¹

b. The climate of acceptability that exists in the organization should be assessed. Practice has shown that a plan that seeks to change the managerial behavior of everyone at the same time is inefficient if not ineffective. Particularly in large, established, or bureaucratic organizations, it is far better to work with one boss and his immediate subordinates at a time.

c. If the effort is to be made group by group, the sequence should be determined. This could be very important in certain organizations based upon unique hierarchies of authority and influence. It generally is best to start at the top of the hierarchy and move down, modifying the process as required to make it fit the unique needs of each group.

d. Plans should specify that the initiative and momentum for drafting and "owning" objectives within each group should be generated from the bottom up.⁴²

e. A hard sell or soft sell approach should be chosen, tailored to the receptability of the organization.⁴³

f. Determine the amount of forms, reports and other administrative controls the program requires. The less the better. It is possible to make the only written requirement the objectives themselves.⁴⁴

g. Refresher training may be needed to keep the essentials uppermost in the minds of managers.⁴⁵

h. The adequate delegation of authority is a critical ingredient to the MBO process. Subordinate managers must

receive the authority they need to accomplish objectives on their own.

3. Set and promulgate the mission, goals and objectives of the organization. The top manager and his immediate key executives must decide where the organization should be going and what their strategy is to get there.⁴⁶

4. Conduct training/workshops to teach the objective-setting process. While it may seem to be a simple matter for a manager to write his objectives, it usually is not. The value of MBO is based in large part on the very fact that it teaches managers to focus on objectives they never before recognized.⁴⁷

5. Write objectives. After the training/workshop, the manager meets privately with each subordinate for a one-to-one objective-setting session. The subordinate should bring to the session the objectives he thinks he should have for the period.

a. Objectives will usually fall into the categories of innovative, problem-solving, routine administrative and personal.⁴⁸

b. Objectives can be identified by examining "normal work output," "normal work output improvements," and "personal or organizational capability improvements."⁴⁹

c. Start the objective with "to" and an action verb.

d. Specify a single key result for each objective.

e. Specify the target date of completion giving the day, month and year.

f. Specify estimate costs, dollar and otherwise.

g. Specify as quantitatively as possible the measure that indicates accomplishment of the objective.

h. Specify the "what" and "when" and not the "why" and "how."

i. The objective should be controllable by the accountable manager, and, where it is partially controllable, that part should be identified.

j. It should be simple, realistic, clear, attainable with available resources, but still be challenging.

k. It should be willingly agreed to by both parties.

l. It should be in writing with copies given to everyone accountable.

m. Each subordinate should restrict the total number of objectives he sets for himself to no more than about ten, and preferably less.⁵⁰

6. Feedback and Dialogue. The manager and each of his subordinates should have frequent, eye-to-eye communication about progress and effort toward the objectives.⁵¹

7. Conduct Appraisal Meetings. The success a particular subordinate had in meeting the objectives mutually agreed upon forms the basis of his appraisal review or fitness report. At the appropriate time, boss and subordinate meet to go over the performance of the subordinate toward his objectives.⁵²

One Management by Objectives expert, Dale McConkey, lists the following 20 ways that management can kill an MBO program:

- "1. Consider MBO a panacea
2. Tell 'em their objectives
3. Leave out staff managers
4. Delegate executive direction
5. Create a paper mill
6. Ignore feedback
7. Emphasize the techniques
8. Implement overnight
9. Fail to reward
10. Have objectives but no plans
11. Stick with original program
12. Be impatient
13. Quantify everything
14. Stress objectives, not the system
15. Dramatize short-term objectives
16. Omit periodic reviews
17. Omit refresher training
18. Don't blend objectives
19. Be gutless
20. Refuse to delegate."⁵³

Management thought has evolved and is still evolving. Some thought is provided by social scientists in the academic world. Other thought is contributed by practicing managers who may have been trained in a specialty from a wide variety of disciplines. From these sources, general schools of management thought can be identified. No one, commonly accepted school, has been agreed upon. Each school slices the subject from a different point of view, and, while no "single one may be one hundred percent accurate, they all have some merit, else they would not survive.

Terry distinguishes seven separate schools of management thought which serve to describe the field in a comprehensive manner. They are the:

- "1. Management by the custom school
2. Scientific management school
3. Human behavior school
4. Social system school
5. Systems Management school
6. Decisional Management school
7. Quantitative management school"⁵⁴

This school of thought is also called the empirical school by some. It believes that management should be guided by the customs and traditions that have endured the test of time and

have proven themselves in the past. It is intent on securing precedent for management action by writing general rules and ideas gleaned from the biographies of famous managers and the histories of successful organizations. Actual case studies management has an application in this school of thought. The methods are conservative and even unrealistic taken alone. They tend to perpetuate the status quo. Nevertheless, many managers belong to this school, or at least practice its ideas some of the time, with success. An environment of rapid change would seem to make this school of thought dangerous.

M 091 THE SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT SCHOOL

This school makes use of an analytical approach to solving problems and making decisions generally thought of as the scientific method. (See Concept M 126.) It is a rather vigorous, methodical way of collecting complete data, analyzing it in its most basic components, posing solutions, ideas, alternatives, or relationships, and testing them by careful experiment. The results obtained are, therefore, well thought out and rationally selected, if a bit mechanical.⁵⁵

M 092 THE HUMAN BEHAVIOR SCHOOL

This school represents the influence of the behavioral sciences on the work situation. Drawing mostly on the application of findings in psychology and social psychology, this

school of thought has had a profound impact on management thinking. The recognition of the worker as a human being with needs rather than a machine has changed the way managers deal with people. He becomes the key to success in the organization. Various techniques have been developed to motivate the worker, to involve him in the enterprise, to learn why he behaves as he does so as to increase his productivity as well as his job satisfaction.⁵⁶

M 093

THE SOCIAL SYSTEM SCHOOL

This school applies the view of sociology to managing the people who make up organizations. It seeks to use observations and findings about groups social interaction, and the forces in society to attain cooperation and harmony within the organization. It looks at management as dealing with a social system which may contain conflict and pain or satisfied demands and cooperation, depending on the interaction of the social forces inside and outside of the system.⁵⁷

M 094

THE SYSTEMS MANAGEMENT SCHOOL

This school of thought is based on the fundamental realization that organized endeavor, no matter how complex or simple, can be broken down into subsystems which act together to attain the system objective. It is easy to think of functions this way, where each subsystem has an input, a process to act on the input, producing an output. This output

can be the input for another subsystem. The benefit is a systematic framework which can be managed flexibly, depending on the nature of the enterprise. It can bring together specialties which would not be related under functional departmentalization. The more complex the enterprise, the more attractive the benefits of this school in the present day computer environment.⁵⁸

M 095 THE DECISIONAL MANAGEMENT SCHOOL

This school is predicated on the view that managing is decision making. As it has evolved, this thinking defines decision making broadly, and uses the methods and techniques of decision theory to guide all management action. While all schools of management thought consider decision making part of management, they do not think it adequate to cover the entire field.⁵⁹ (See Concept M 097.)

M 096 THE QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENT SCHOOL

This school takes advantage of the precision and virtuosity of mathematics to make management decisions. Where the factors involved in a particular case are measurable numbers, these methods are highly accurate. In particular, they can provide the only means to thoroughly analyze complex problems. However many management problems cannot be quantified easily, and it is here that the technique is weak.⁶⁰ (See Concepts M 106 - M 126.)

Decision-making is choosing a course of action among alternatives. In this sense, inaction is one of the alternatives. Decisions are made because a conflict or an objective exists of sufficient magnitude to elicit the making of a choice of action to resolve or attain it.

Decisions can be made either by individuals or by groups. As collections of individuals, groups can complicate the decision process in seeking to aggregate their individual choices. There are some special rules and variances which occur in groups, but first, the decision-making process by individuals must be examined.

A chimpanzee can make choices among alternatives, but the limit of its ability to do so beyond habit and reflex is limited to rather simple things. Its choices with complex problems become irrational because it does not possess the ability to think to the extent that humans can. Although it is possible for a person to act irrationally, it is his ability to choose rationally that makes him superior to a chimpanzee and allows him to select the best course of action toward a goal. When a rational person seeks a goal or the resolution of a conflict, he analyzes it in order to identify all of the possible ways he could attain it within whatever constraints that exist, he evaluates and compares the most promising alternatives and finally chooses the one to best satisfy his goal or to solve the conflict.⁶¹

This is a rather logical simple step-by-step process, but it has acquired some tools which make it an increasingly complex matter, particularly as problems have become more complex, and the cost of errors in judgment has increased. In making a rational decision, then, the basic steps, slightly expanded, are to:

1. Identify specifically the objectives or conditions the decision seeks to accomplish.
2. Where appropriate, classify the objectives as to how mandatory they are to a satisfactory decision.
3. Develop alternative courses of action.
4. Evaluate and compare alternatives against each other and against the objectives.
5. Make the decision by selecting the optimum course of action which best satisfies the objectives.
6. Project the decision into the future to identify any adverse ramifications, taking action to prevent them from becoming future problems.⁶²

Essentially, then, the decision-maker chooses an action. He has available to him a variety of thought processes, information, and techniques to help him make this choice. Some are nonquantitative and some are quantitative (or mathematical). The advent of the computer has made possible quantitative methods which were impossible or impractical previously because of the length of time they took to do by hand.

Rational decision-making is often made more difficult by limitations such as:

1. Having to gain consensus on goals or values.
2. The complexities of the problems.
3. Insufficient time.
4. Insufficient information or data.
5. Assaults on the mind of the decision-maker, such as interest groups, advisor bias, personal bias, and emotional factors.
6. An irrational decision-maker, on occasion.

Strategies and dodges have been devised by decision-makers to get around these limitations. Some of the more common are:

1. Take the first alternative that meets the minimum requirements and look no further due to time constraints.
2. Wait, having made a tentative decision which can be changed next time.
3. Make a decision or update a decision based on feedback from its impact.
4. Make a decision which corrects the immediate, short-term problem and ignores the known, longer term problem.
5. Make a series of decisions over time, where later decisions are made after observing the result of previous decisions. This allows stopping, if deemed necessary.
6. Make a decision on the most pressing issue while postponing the rest (crisis management).

7. Make little decisions rather than big decisions, with no specified order.

M 098

CONSERVATIVE DECISION-MAKING

Conservatism is perpetuated by those decisionmakers who rely primarily on past experiences and who restrict their alternatives to those for which their past experience has solutions.

M 099

BALANCING LONG AND SHORT RANGE DECISIONS

"To make the present business effective may require one specific course of action. To make the future of the business different may require different action. Yet what is done to make the present business effective inevitably commits resources; inevitably molds the future. What is done to anticipate the future inevitably affects the present business in all its policies, expectations, products, and knowledge efforts. Major actions in everyone of the economic dimensions have therefore to be consistent with one another. Conflicts between the conclusions of the various analyses have to be reconciled. There has to be balance between the efforts. Otherwise, one effort undoes what another has been trying to achieve. The hard reality of the present must not be obscured by the lure of tomorrow's promises. But the difficult and discouraging work for tomorrow must also not be smothered by the urgencies of the present."⁶³

If managers are needed to coordinate and direct the energies of people and resources to accomplish a desired goal, then problems are the reason for that need. A problem is a deviation from a standard, or, put differently, a discrepancy between the actual condition and a desired or ideal condition. Problems must be solved by managers or goals never will be attained.⁶⁴

Probably only God has counted how many managers don't really know how to solve problems effectively. The chances are, though, that their number is high and their cost to their organization is considerable. The reason for this is that problem-solving is often very difficult to do effectively because of the constraints imposed by the real world. Some of these are:

1. Time is too short to solve the problem properly (often because it should have been solved previously and is now a crisis).
2. Inadequate resources.
3. Poor skill in soliciting communication.
4. The environment is continually changing.
5. Ignorance of a systematic method of problem-solving.
6. The inherent social psychological shortcomings of problem-solving in groups, such as fear of censure, embarrassment, and "groupthink" consequences.

7. Inadequate sources of knowledge of the pertinent facts surrounding the problem.⁶⁵

Because of all this, many managers fail to identify the true, single cause of a problem. Without knowing the cause, a manager cannot solve the problem effectively.⁶⁶

(He must, of course, be committed to solving the problem, otherwise it is not actually a problem to him.)⁶⁷

To solve a problem, then, a manager must:

1. Identify the standard or desired condition.
2. Identify the actual condition.
3. Identify the problem (the deviation between 1 and 2).
4. Identify the cause of the deviation exactly.
5. Use the decision-making process (See Concept M 097)

to develop, analyze, and select a course of action that will eliminate the deviation and restore the standard.⁶⁸

In identifying the cause of the deviation, the following guidelines are helpful:

1. "A deviation from standard must be precisely identified, located and described."⁶⁹

2. "There is always something distinguishing that which has been affected by the cause from that which has not."⁷⁰

3. "The cause of a problem is always a change that has taken place through some distinctive feature, mechanism, or condition to produce a new unwanted effect."⁷¹

4. "The possible causes of a deviation are deduced from the relevant changes found in analyzing the problem."⁷²

5. "The most likely cause of a deviation is one that exactly explains all the facts in the specification of the problem."⁷³

Every day of their lives, people solve problems, large and small, because living is in large part continual problem-solving. We are not always aware of the processes that we use to accomplish this because the processes are invisible, sometimes habits, and often unconscious. They can also happen very quickly. As a result, we seldom go back to determine how we solved the problem. When a complex problem comes along, we don't know how to handle it and all too often grasp the first chance solution we can find. The correct solution is there. It is just hidden from the superficial glance. Knowledge of the problem-solving process stated above gives the manager a logical sequence to employ that allows him to tackle any problem confidently. The results are limited only by the creativity and ingenuity he uses in accomplishing the steps. The final action he takes can be any of the following:⁷⁴

1. "Interim action: buys the manager time for finding the cause of a problem.
2. Adaptive action: lets the manager live with the tolerable effects of a problem or with an ineradicable cause.
3. Corrective action: gets rid of the known cause of a problem.

4. Preventive action: removes the possible cause of a problem, or reduces its probability. Contingency action: provides stand-by arrangements to offset or minimize the effects of a serious potential problem."⁷⁵

M 101	<u>MODELS</u>
M 102	<u>BRAINSTORMING</u>
M 103	<u>GROUPTHINK</u>
M 104	<u>CASE STUDY METHOD</u>
M 105	<u>CONTINGENCY PERSPECTIVE</u>
M 106	<u>SYSTEMS ANALYSIS</u>
M 107	<u>OPERATIONS RESEARCH</u>
M 108	<u>PROBABILITY</u>
M 109	<u>STATISTICS</u>
M 110	<u>COMPUTERS</u>
M 111	<u>EXPERTS</u>
M 112	<u>EFFECTIVENESS</u>
M 113	<u>REGRESSION ANALYSIS</u>
M 114	<u>GAMING</u>
M 115	<u>LINEAR PROGRAMMING</u>

M 116	<u>MONTE CARLO</u>
M 117	<u>DECISION TREES</u>
M 118	<u>QUEUING THEORY</u>
M 119	<u>SIMULATION</u>
M 120	<u>UNCERTAINTY AND RISK</u>
M 121	<u>MATRIX</u>
M 122	<u>OPTIMIZATION</u>
M 123	<u>VARIABLES</u>
M 124	<u>SUBOPTIMIZATION</u>
M 125	<u>NETWORKS</u>
M 126	<u>THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD</u>
M 127	<u>BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY</u>
M 128	<u>THE ENTREPRENEUR</u>
M 129	<u>MARKETING</u>
M 130	<u>CONTRACTS</u>
M 131	<u>HUMAN ENGINEERING</u>
M 132	<u>LABOR UNIONS</u>
M 133	<u>CIVIL SERVICE</u>

M 134	<u>CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION</u>
M 135	<u>GRIEVANCES</u>
M 136	<u>CONTROLLING</u>
M 137	<u>STANDARDS</u>
M 138	<u>INSPECTIONS</u>
M 139	<u>REPORTS AND RECORDS</u>
M 140	<u>BREAK-EVEN POINT</u>
M 141	<u>COMMANDING</u>
M 142	<u>END-MEANS INVERSION</u>
M 143	<u>COMMUNICATION</u>
M 144	<u>FEEDBACK</u>
M 145	<u>VARIANCES</u>
M 146	<u>PRODUCTIVITY</u>
M 147	<u>STAFFING</u>

After planning has taken place, and organizing of the proper structure has followed, it is time for the management function of staffing. Staffing is the assignment of competent people to the billets in the organization structure. As a continuing function, staffing includes the following areas:

1. Recruitment
2. Selection
3. Training
4. Appraisal
5. Promotion
6. Compensation
7. Retirement

Too often staffing is left ot the personnel department to worry about when, in fact, it is a responsibility every manager should recognize as his own. A moment's reflection will reveal that every manager has some influence in each of the areas of staffing. By recognizing this responsibility and by taking some positive steps to meet it, managers could do a great deal to improve the overall effectiveness of the members of their organization.⁷⁶

M 148	<u>RECRUITING</u>
M 149	<u>CLASSIFICATION</u>
M 150	<u>PROMOTION</u>
M 151	<u>COUNSELING</u>
M 152	<u>ON-THE-JOB TRAINING</u>
M 153	<u>PLACEMENT</u>
M 154	<u>ADMINISTRATION</u>

M 155

PERT

M 156

VARIOUS CONCEPTS

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS

OD 001 OD INTERVENTION

OD 002 STEPS IN THE OD PROCESS¹

OD 003 ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS

The nature and the use of the goals an organization chooses for itself reveal in a unique way the character and behavior of that organization. They are the resultant of all of the influences on the organization, good and bad, personal and official, internal and external, visionary or blind. Sometimes successful goals are institutionalized by the organization, and accordingly lose the ability to deal with environmental changes. The multiple goals in an organization often conflict. Sometimes such conflict is healthy and fosters change when it is needed. But, the essential point is that there is a time dimension in using goals to observe an organization. That there is conflict and change in goals means that, like a photograph, a look yesterday will be different from a look today.²

OD 004 OD OBJECTIVES

OD 005 ORGANIZATION TRAINING

OD 006 DEVELOPING COMMUNICATION SKILLS

OD 007 GOAL SETTING

OD 008 SOURCES AND MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT

OD 009	<u>IMPROVING MEETINGS</u>
OD 010	<u>PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS</u>
OD 011	<u>DECISION MAKING SKILLS</u>
OD 012	<u>ASSESSING CHANGES</u>
OD 013	<u>ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS</u>
OD 014	<u>DEMANDS FOR CERTAIN BEHAVIOR</u>

In the Navy, we spell out in detail, often in writing, what skills, standards, performance and results we expect from our men. If we demand certain types of personal behavior too, we should be open and honest in stating them just like the other requirements. By not doing so, we imply that we are unsure of our right to demand special behavior. If it is required we should say so, and if not, we should not ask it, even implicitly.

BIOLOGY CONCEPTS

The fundamental concepts of biology are of interest in the study of human behavior because the human body doing the behaving is a biological animal. All behavioral acts in some way involve the physiological aspects of the human body. As a living thing, the body coexists with plants, other animals, and bacteria. All three are interdependent, and, with some modifications and variations, all three have similar basic activities.

The fundamental, physical living substance is protoplasm in semi-liquid form in the cell. The cell is the basic structural unit of living matter. There are many different types of cells. Similar cells combine in complex ways to form tissue such as muscle tissue, blood, and nerve tissue. Similar tissues combine to form organs such as the heart, the kidney, and the liver. There are certain essential characteristics common to all living cells. Some of them are:

1. Organization - the specific organization of chemical substances in the protoplasm is the factor that makes it living rather than non-living matter.

2. Growth - the bringing in of food and its chemical transformation into living matter.

3. Waste Elimination - the expelling of waste material, particularly harmful material.

4. Irritability - the ability to respond to stimuli.

5. Adaptation - the adapting to the physical environment is essential to survival.

6. Movement - the ability to move is ultimately the basic ingredient of behavior.

7. Reproduction - the ability to reproduce another like itself.¹⁸

B 002

NERVE CELLS

Nerve cells are one type of cell and are the basic building block of the nervous system. Each nerve cell looks something like a tiny kite with a tail. The kite portion is the cell body and has several small branches extending out from it (dendrites). These branches are receivers of information from adjacent nerve cells and transmit it to the cell body (soma). The tail of the kite (axon) acts as a transmission line for the cell body. In humans, these tails can be as short as a few inches and as long as several feet. At the end of the tail, there is a mushroom-shaped tip (synapse). This tip may be located next to the branches or the body of other nerve cells. They do not quite touch, but act as terminals for the transmission of information from their cell to another cell. The information is transmitted across the gap either electrically or chemically and in one direction only.

Each nerve cell has a difference in electrical potential between the outside of the cell and the fluid inside its tail. Typically, the magnitude of the electrical potential is approximately equal to 5% of the energy generated by a common flashlight battery. When an appropriate electrical or chemical stimulus excites a nerve cell, its electrical potential reverses for an instant, causing it to send a spike of information through its tail to the next cell. Groups of nerve cells are called nerves and work both independently and together to control the activity of the body. For example, trophic nerves specifically deal with growth, nourishment, and tissue repair. Motor nerves control the action of the muscles. Sensory nerves convey the information received by our senses. Autonomic or involuntary nerves control and harmonize the functioning of our internal vital organs. There are some basic characteristics of nerve cells when they fire which are important.

1. No matter how the magnitude of the stimulus varies, the size of the action potential of the cell when it fires is always the same. It depends on the cell itself, not on how strongly the activating signal was.

2. The strength of the action potential is not diminished over distance. Even if the tail of the cell is several feet long, the original signal strength is passed from the tip of the tail to the next cell.

3. Immediately following the firing of a nerve cell, before it restores its resting potential, it cannot fire again no matter how strong the stimulus.

4. A stronger stimulus causes the nerve cells to fire at a faster rate.

5. An intense stimulus causes more nerve cells to fire than a weak one.

6. Different nerve cells have different thresholds of excitation. This refers to the minimum magnitude of stimulus required to cause the cell to fire.

7. The chemicals which can be released by the tips of the tails of a nerve cell not only can produce discharges of the cell, but can also inhibit discharge. Thus, the frequency of discharge of a cell depends on the chemical condition at the moment, as well as the size of the stimulus, the magnitude of the stimulus, and how recently the cell last fired.¹⁹

B 003

THE HUMAN MACHINE

B 004

KINESTHETICS AND EQUILIBRIUM

B 005

ANATOMY OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

The nervous system of the human body can be divided into three subdivisions: the central nervous system, the peripheral nervous system, and the autonomic (involuntary) nervous system.

The central nervous system is composed of the brain, the spinal cord, and the nerve trunks and fibers which are connected

with them. The transmitting tails possessed by each nerve cell are bundled together into nerve trunks. Some such trunks go from the base of the brain and from the spinal cord to every part of the body and extend to the brain and spinal cord. In the first instance, these motor nerves tell the body (particularly the muscles) to do something, and in the other case, the sensory nerves tell the cord or brain what stimulus they are receiving. The central nervous system is analogous to a telephone system.

The peripheral nervous system is composed of twelve pairs of cranial nerves and thirty-one pairs of spinal nerves. They carry impulses which are either sensory motor, or mixed nerves, and are mostly voluntary. Examples of sensory nerves are the optic nerve which conveys the stimulus of light through the eyes, the auditory nerve which conveys hearing, and the olfactory nerve which conveys the sense of smell. The motor nerves in the cranium are mostly in the face and head and move the eyes and the muscles in the face. The spinal nerves extend from the vertebrae of the spine to all parts of the body. Voluntary spinal nerves go to all of the muscles of the trunk, arms, and legs, and to the smooth muscles of the glands.

The autonomic nervous system functions involuntarily with no control by the will. The primary function is to control the action of the organs, such as the heart, trachea, stomach, liver and intestines, as well as skin and other glands. The

system is divided into two subdivisions which operate in opposition to each other in order to keep the body in balance for whatever the situation is. For example, one subdivision of nerves increases the action of the heart and the opposing subdivision slows it.²⁰

B 006	<u>THE BRAIN</u>
B 007	<u>CYBERNETICS</u>
B 008	<u>THE SPINAL CORD</u>
B 009	<u>THE SENSES</u>
B 010	<u>THE EYES</u>
B 011	<u>THE EARS</u>
B 012	<u>SMELL</u>
B 013	<u>TASTE</u>
B 014	<u>TOUCH</u>
B 015	<u>GENETICS, HEREDITY, AND BEHAVIOR</u>
B 016	<u>DRUG ABUSE</u>
B 017	<u>DRUGS</u>
B 018	<u>ALCOHOL</u>
B 019	<u>CAFFEINE</u>

B 020	<u>NICOTINE</u>
B 021	<u>SEDATIVES</u>
B 022	<u>STIMULANTS</u>
B 023	<u>TRANQUILIZERS</u>
B 024	<u>CANNABIS</u>
B 025	<u>NARCOTICS</u>
B 026	<u>HALLUCINOGENS</u>
B 027	<u>ANTIDEPRESSANTS</u>
B 028	<u>HUMAN FACTORS ENGINEERING</u>
B 029	<u>MAN-MACHINE SYSTEM RELATIONSHIPS</u>
B 030	<u>MAN-TOOL COMBINATION</u>
B 031	<u>MAN-MACHINE DYAD</u>
B 032	<u>MAN-MACHINE SYSTEM</u>
B 033	<u>STIMULI VARIABLES</u>
B 034	<u>FREQUENCY</u>
B 035	<u>RATE</u>
B 036	<u>INTENSITY</u>

B 037	<u>SIMILARITY</u>
B 038	<u>PATTERNING</u>
B 039	<u>DURATION</u>
B 040	<u>MODALITY</u>
B 041	<u>SYSTEM DESIGN APPROACHES</u>
B 042	<u>MISSIONS</u>
B 043	<u>FUNCTIONS</u>
B 044	<u>TASKS</u>
B 045	<u>STIMULUS-RESPONSE SEQUENCES</u>
B 046	<u>EVALUATION AND BEHAVIOR</u>

PHILOSOPHY CONCEPTS

P 001	<u>LOGIC</u> ²¹
P 002	<u>ESTHETICS</u> ²²
P 003	<u>ETHICS</u> ²³
P 004	<u>POLITICS</u> ²⁴
P 005	<u>METAPHYSICS</u> ²⁵
P 006	<u>TYPES OF THINKING</u>
P 007	<u>CREATIVITY</u>
P 008	<u>CAUSATIVE</u>
P 009	<u>INDUCTIVE</u>
P 010	<u>DEDUCTIVE</u>
P 011	<u>PROBLEM SOLVING</u>
P 012	<u>EXISTENTIALISM</u>
P 013	<u>POSITIVISM</u>
P 014	<u>RELATIVITY</u>
P 015	<u>REASON</u>
P 016	<u>UTILITARIANISM</u>
P 017	<u>OBJECTIVISM</u>

"Originally, the doctrines of predestination in Protestantism postulated an elite who were saved and others who were from the beginning condemned; there was no external signal to show the individual in which category he fell. This hard doctrine apparently did not lead to passivity; if one took it seriously, one also took one's religious responsibilities seriously. But the inner loneliness and insecurity occasioned by taking literally so bleak and inscrutable a theological position made it likely that the individual would look hard for some external sign that he could interpret as a sign of religious grace. As a result, various doctrines developed in which good works were held to be a sign of religious salvation.

These doctrines easily led to the justification of worldly prosperity on religious grounds, encouraging systematic and intensive economic activity. It was a duty to be active in the calling God gave one in the secular world. All the virtues of sobriety, rationality, activity, frugality, impersonal devotion to a specific calling, and so on, so prominent in the total system, were congenial to successful business endeavor. Given the objective possibility of capitalistic enterprise, such a doctrine could actually motivate men to accumulate wealth on the basis of religious imperatives."²⁶

P 019

THE MEDITERRANEAN ETHIC

In contrast to the relatively austere, strict life dictated by the Protestant ethic, the values of the peoples in the Mediterranean region have a different ethic, just as strongly felt. This Mediterranean ethic said, in effect, that "a man should spend only enough effort to earn what he needs to enjoy the good life and such worldly pleasures as may appeal to him."²⁷

P 020

THOUGHTS ON LIVING

P 021

KNOW THYSELF

"Human beings have always employed an enormous variety of clever devices for running away from themselves, and the modern world is particularly rich in such stratagems. We can keep ourselves so busy, fill our lives with so many diversions, stuff our heads with so much knowledge, involve ourselves with so many people, and cover so much ground that we never had time to probe the fearful and wonderful world within. More often than not we don't want to know ourselves, don't want to depend on ourselves, don't want to live with ourselves. By middle life most of us are accomplished fugitives from ourselves."²⁸

"One of the reasons why mature people are apt to learn less than young people is that they are willing to risk less. Learning is a risky business, and they do not like failure. In infancy, when the child is learning at a truly phenomenal rate - a rate he will never again achieve - he is also experiencing a shattering number of failures. Watch him. See the innumerable things he tries and fails. And see how little the failures discourage him. With each year that passes he will be less blithe about failure. By adolescence the willingness of young people to risk failure has diminished greatly. And all too often parents push them further along that road by instilling fear, by punishing failure or by making success seem too precious. By middle age most of us carry in our heads a tremendous catalogue of things we have no intention of trying again because we tried them once and failed - or tried them once and did less well than our self-esteem demanded.

One of the virtues of formal schooling is that it requires the student to test himself in a great variety of activities that are not of his own choosing. But the adult can usually select the kinds of activity on which he allows himself to be tested, and he takes full advantage of that freedom of choice. He tends increasingly to confine himself to the things he does well and to avoid the things in which he has failed or has

never tried. We pay a heavy price for our fear of failure. It is a powerful obstacle to growth. It assures the progressive narrowing of the personality and prevents exploration and experimentation. There is no learning without some difficulty and fumbling. If you want to keep on learning, you must keep on risking failure - all your life. It's as simple as that."²⁹

P 023

INDIVIDUALITY

"Every life is a profession of faith, and exercises an inevitable and silent propaganda. As far as lies in its power, it tends to transform the universe and humanity into its own image. (Every man's) conduct is an unspoken sermon that is forever preaching to others."³⁰

P 024

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN'S EXAMPLE

"Franklin collected thirteen principles to cover the small amenities of daily life. They were: Temperance, silence, order, resolution, frugality, industry, sincerity, justice, moderation, cleanliness, tranquility, chastity, humility. Each week he picked out one and practiced it diligently, thus creating a habit. Each year he practiced each one a full week in each quarter, thus covering them all four times each year. He kept this up for many years. The uncouth Franklin of early manhood . . . developed into the statesman

and man of the world who won the respect of Englishmen, the admiration of Frenchmen, and the gratitude of Americans."³¹

P 025

SELF-RENEWAL VS CONTINUITY

"If the process of maturing were not selective and narrowing, one would have no coherence and no focus in one's life. Furthermore, everyone has settled habits that have no great justification except that they are comfortable. The scientist who will discard a pet theory on a moment's notice may fly into a rage if the housekeeper discards his pet pipe. And who knows whether the pet pipe (plus all the other comfortable continuities of life) provides precisely that margin of security which permits him to lead the reckless life of innovation?

In short, even the self-renewing man has fixed habits and attitudes, but they are not of the sort that interfere with continuous renewal. If the scientist changed his pipe weekly but never his theories, he would be in serious difficulty. The moral is clear. If we must have some continuity in our lives - and we must - let it be of the sort that does not prevent renewal."³²

P 026

TEACHING YOUNG PEOPLE

"Young people do not assimilate the values of their group by learning the words (truth, justice, etc.) and their definitions. They learn attitudes, habits and ways of judging.

They learn these in intensely personal transactions with their immediate family or associates. They learn them in the routines and crises of living, but they also learn them through songs, stories, drama and games. They do not learn ethical principles; they emulate ethical (or unethical) people. They do not analyze or list the attributes they wish to develop; they identify with people who seem to them to have these attributes. That is why young people need models, both in their imaginative life and in their environment, models of what man at his best can be."

FOOTNOTES

MILITARY AND HISTORY CONCEPTS

FOOTNOTES

MILITARY AND HISTORY CONCEPTS

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ANTHROPOLOGY

ECONOMICS

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